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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 195

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:

Administrative Discipline 198
Reform of Judicial Procedure..... 198
The Zinc-Ore Tariff Outrage..... 199
The Output of Doctorates 200
Moral Uplift in Gardening..... 201

SPECIAL ARTICLES:

The Status of the Summer School.... 202
News for Bibliophiles..... 203

CORRESPONDENCE:

The Instructor 203
A Presidential Road to Learning.... 205
Physics and Metaphysics..... 205
The Japanese Sugar Scandal..... 206

NOTES 206

BOOK REVIEWS:

Notes on Text Books 208
An Introductory History of England.. 210
Anne of Avonlea..... 212
Dromina 212
Homespun 212
The Cuckoo's Nest 212
Kant's Theory of Knowledge 213
The Rockies of Canada..... 213
Minnesota, the North Star State..... 214
Oxford Lecturers on Poetry..... 214
Benjamin Constant 214
Social Life at Rome in the Age of Cicero 215
Valuation: Its Nature and Laws.... 216

SCIENCE:

Our Insect Friends and Enemies..... 216

DRAMA AND MUSIC:

Briefwechsel zwischen Franz Liszt und Carl Alexander Grossherzog von Sachsen 217

ART:

Greek Buildings Represented by Fragments in the British Museum..... 219

FINANCE:

A Fall in Stock Exchange Prices.... 219

BOOKS OF THE WEEK..... 220

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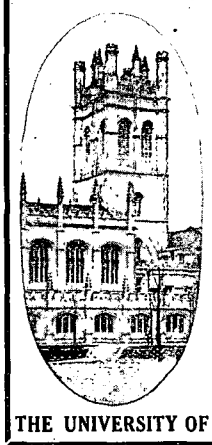

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 2, 1909.

The Week.

The *Commoner* of Mr. Bryan points to the fact that the only notable victory won of late years by the Democracy was in 1892, when it flat-footedly opposed protection. It urges that a tariff for revenue be made the issue in the immediate future. One does not know whether to rejoice over Mr. Bryan's tardy conversion, or to deplore "the years that the locust hath eaten," while he was worshipping false gods. More than any other living man Mr. Bryan is responsible for having induced the Democratic party to forsake its great historic issue. He has persistently led his followers through the quagmire of novel heresies. He has blown a thousand blasts against the gold standard, against corporations, against the present system of individual bank responsibility, against private ownership of railways. But from the day of his first nomination, he has never staked the whole political battle upon the historic mission of Democracy—the eradication of favoritism to particular interests by Federal taxation. His belated conversion is only another proof of his fatal lack of foresight and his total incapacity as a statesman. If sincere, it should be followed by his tacit willingness to fight in the ranks. But there is time left yet before 1912 for him to discover half a dozen other paramount issues.

It may be that Mr. Morrison, secretary of the American Federation of Labor, has no technical *locus standi* in asking the Department of Commerce and Labor to investigate the conditions of alien laborers at the Pressed Steel Car Company's works at McKee's Rocks. The strikers are not members of the American Federation of Labor. Besides, unless the company has violated some Federal statute such as the Contract Labor law, or the law prohibiting peonage, the State of Pennsylvania would seem to be the proper authority to conduct such an inquiry. But in a broader, non-technical sense, and standing simply on his rights as an American citizen, Mr. Morrison and everybody else is vitally concerned in a political way in the pointed issue Mr, Morrison raises:

> Laborin' man an' laborin' woman
> Hev one glory an' one shame.
> Ev'y thin' thet's done inhuman
> Injers all on 'em the same.

And the charge made is that the Pressed Steel Car Company is enabled by the tariff to exact high prices for its product, but that instead of sharing its gains with its workers, it grinds down and oppresses many of them with a meagre wage. As Mr. Morrison puts it, it is "not giving labor what is justly due it." The strike at McKee's Rocks ought to prove that the pretence that the tariff is devised in behalf of the laborer is buncombe, pure and simple. If the eyes of the wage-earners themselves are opened to this fact, the greed that now drapes itself in the hypocritical disguise of tenderness for the laborer will stand exposed.

The confession of Judge Gary, at the dinner in his honor given by the Sheffield Chamber of Commerce, that he had no objection to free trade, if only it were universally adopted, is now characteristic of our greatest iron masters. Mr. Carnegie, it will be remembered, has delivered himself to the same effect, that the American steel and iron industry no longer requires protection. Reciprocal trade conditions between all the countries of the world, to which Judge Gary expressed himself as favorable, take on increasing attractiveness when the provincial state of industrial development has once been passed and world-wide maturity attained. One can, however, understand something of the fury which this Olympian open-mindedness excites in the breasts of lesser producers who think that their profits now depend on the tariff. These devotees of protection shrink from that readjustment of methods and processes which they would have to face if the arbitrary screen behind which they are sheltered were lowered. And others who know that their prices are artificially boosted by the tariff vent their indignation upon the selfish treachery, as they term it, of those who have arrived at the top of the tree, and who coolly question the utility of artificial ladders for scaling the magic bean-stalk.

The unwonted promptness with which all of the executive departments of the Federal Government have drafted their preliminary estimates for expenditure, is an earnest of the novel spirit of economy which actuates the Administration. There is no doubt of President Taft's deep-seated purpose to effect the utmost saving of public money compatible with administrative efficiency. Ordinarily, the preliminary estimates are submitted about October 15. After being canvassed by the Treasury, they are assembled in the book of estimates, which, having received the President's sanction, is transmitted to Congress. The thick quarto still bears the rather quaint title of a Letter to the Speaker of the House of Representatives. The Secretary of the Treasury, from whom the "Letter" purports to emanate, is the single legalized channel through which all official recommendations of proposed expenditure in detail must pass. It is unfortunate that the Secretary's freedom is hampered in some respects by statutory regulations prescribing the items to be included in the official estimates. Nevertheless, he still has considerable leeway, and may trim and pare the figures of the various bureaus so as very sensibly to affect the total estimates. An early compilation, therefore, will give the Secretary more than the usual period for inquiry and review. There will result almost to a certainty a carefully scrutinized list of appropriations awaiting the action of Congress when that body convenes in December.

The high character of recent appointments in the Bureau of the Census, is maintained in the admirable choices made by Director Durand of experts to prepare and formulate the various schedules. This preliminary work of devising schedule questions, which shall be at once practicable and of a character to throw light upon the real conditions of industry, is an important and delicate work. Most of the appointees for this task are trained economists, many of them now holding university positions. Typical of the new kind of coadjutor is the committee to draft the *questionnaire* for the agricultural schedule. Of the four members of this com-

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mittee, Prof. T. N. Carver is a professor of economics at Harvard University, Mr. Coulter is an instructor in agricultural economics in the University of Minnesota, Prof. H. C. Taylor holds the chair of agricultural economics at the University of Wisconsin, and Mr. Warren is professor of farm management and crops in Cornell University. All of these gentlemen have an expert knowledge of the subject. Their equipment and character, like those of their colleagues on the committees on manufactures, dependent classes, and general statistics, should give the next census a unique position amongst informing official inquiries.

The widespread interest in the betterment of city government is indicated by the attendance of nearly one thousand delegates at the convention of the League of American Municipalities at Montreal. That city has recently discovered graft in its own administration so that the choice of a meeting place proved most opportune. From the secretary's address, it appears that forty cities in this country have already adopted some variety of the commission type of government, and thirty-three other cities scattered over twenty-five States are at present considering this new plan. The moot question of State versus local control of municipal public utilities called forth the usual differences of opinion in the convention. It seems not at all unlikely that the present time may in retrospect be known as the era of political enlightenment. With campaigns and non-partisan conventions and associations dealing with taxation, city government, direct primaries, the short ballot, public utilities, and all sorts of administrative problems, it will be strange if a final precipitate of wisdom is not thrown down for the healing of the nation.

The action of the Pure Food Association in endorsing the findings of the Remsen Board of Referees upon the use of benzoate of soda as a food-preservative will be regarded by the general public as final. The vote, though in favor of the board by only 57 to 42, is the more significant in that last year the association took strong ground against any use of benzoate whatever. The courts, especially in Indiana, where suits are pending in both Federal and State courts upon injunctions to restrain the enforcement of rules prohibiting the use of this preservative, will now have some additional light by which to arrive at their decisions. It must, however, be remembered that the Remsen Board was charged merely to answer certain specific queries, and has made no recommendation as to the administration of the Pure Food laws. That four grams per day of this preservative are not dangerous to the consumer's health, and that benzoate does not disguise any original defect in the materials preserved, may be taken as proved. But whether the Secretary of Agriculture is to permit the use of this preservative in unrestricted amounts, and whether its use is to be indicated by a compulsory label, are matters of administration, upon which the chemists' verdict does not bear. It is to be hoped that Dr. Wiley will persist in his determination not to resign his position, and that he and the Secretary of Agriculture may unite upon some administrative regulations which will guard the health of the consumer without jeopardizing the legitimate use of the preservative in question.

Geography is also among the progressive sciences. This is the upshot of the address of Sir Duncan Johnston, president of the geographical section of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, holding session at Winnipeg. The idea that work in geography must now take on an exclusively intensive character, and consist of surveys, rather than explorations, has been thoroughly disproved of late years. Not only Shackleton's and Sven Hedin's polar expeditions, but Stein's discoveries in Khotan have shown how imperfect is our knowledge of physical geography and grades of civilization. The Duke of Abruzzi is investigating unknown regions on the northern Indian frontier, while Mongolia, West Africa, New Guinea, and both poles are besieged by eager explorers who will certainly add vastly to our knowledge of the topography and demography of the globe. Within a fortnight announcements have been made of the finding of a hitherto unknown glacier on the Alaskan coast, as well as of the vestiges of an advanced civilization once seated in that region. It is always dangerous to think of any department of science as a closed book. Once let some definitive treatise be read as the funeral service over further advance in any branch of knowledge, and forthwith discovery or invention delights to run riot in that very field.

Medical ethics is a mighty deep for the layman to embark upon, we know, yet recent events make us wonder what are the exact laws compelling a physician to reticence. If it is a mere King or President who is ill, we expect to have a medical bulletin, conveying to the public more or less of the truth. But apparently this rule does not hold for a great financier, whose health is one of the elements in stock-gambling. About his condition, we are permitted to learn nothing. His physician "cannot speak." His chaplain speaks, so do his relatives and a visiting banker, but the faculty is dumb. Yet a foreign physician, who has treated the financier, talks freely to reporters, giving his view of the case. It is only the doctors now in charge who are bound over to professional secrecy. We do not question their delicacy or conscientiousness; but their course shows that the code of medical ethics will have to be rewritten.

Nowhere in the world, not even in Russia, has there been a Yiddish theatre of any such importance as that on the East Side of New York. Russian-Jewish customs, the realistic idealism of the Russian, given a local setting amid the conditions of the New World, have received, on the boards of the Bowery and Grand Street Yiddish theatres, a multiform and vigorous representation. Very little of it, of course, has been "pure art." Much of it has been farce and operatic mixtures, and melodrama crops up in almost every Yiddish play. But isolated scenes are often of searching and genuinely dramatic power, acted with passion and directness. It is therefore regrettable to hear that Jacob Adler, best known of Yiddish actors and managers, announces that, in consequence of the demands of the actors' unions, he is not able to run his theatre, and that he will lease it to a moving picture show. They demand, he says, exorbitant increases in salaries, and also the employment of more actors than he can use. It is said that the vitality of the Yiddish theatre has, of

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recent years, somewhat fallen off. Jacob Gordin, the "Shakespeare of the Ghetto," is dead, and even before his death his prestige had waned, partly because of the growing extravagance and unreality of his manner and theme. Yet the Yiddish theatre has been a remarkably living and complete reproduction of the life of a people. Not only was the life of Hester Street, and of the old orthodox Jew, with his picturesque psychology and infinite tradition, artistically represented on the stage, but also the Russian "intellectual" life—the life of Muscovite art and modern social and political yearning.

When a Duke goes out into the market-place and asks piteously how he can economize without inflicting hardships upon others, it is certainly an act of charity to tell him. Sir Edward Grey lately undertook, in an open letter, this kindly office for the Duke of Northumberland. That nobleman had maintained that the new taxes would compel him to retrench, but that he could not cut down his expenses without lowering wages, dismissing servants, etc. But Sir Edward points out that if a man owns more than one house, in town or country, he can lease one, with an obligation on the occupier to keep it up. As the Duke has two castles, besides Syon House in Brentford, and a town residence in Grosvenor Place, the bearing of the advice is obvious. Besides, a landed proprietor often has shooting rights, which he can sell or let, thus increasing his own income without diminishing employment. Sir Edward puts in one important *caveat*. He warns the Duke that he is not speaking of retrenchments that will be pleasant, but only of those which are possible.

The accounts of the arrival of the Zeppelin III in Berlin make interesting reading for those who still think of the Germans only as a phlegmatic and stolid people. Not even Bismarck at the height of his popularity ever received a greater ovation than that accorded to the veteran inventor. That the sight of a great airship manœuvring over a city appeals powerfully to the imagination is, of course, true. But the German enthusiasm is not to be attributed solely to elation over an epoch-making spectacle. Industrially the most diligent and intelligent nation on earth, Germans have a profound respect for the man who takes the leadership in fresh fields, conquers nature anew, and applies science to the solution of a problem. The national rise to commercial greatness in so short a space of time is due to this readiness to turn to men of science for industrial advice. It is a commonplace that the Germans are years ahead of other nations in the practical application of the newer chemical learning. They have not been afraid to go to philosophers of the closet for aid and suggestion, and every professional discovery has enhanced the respect for the man of learning. Hence comes the profound admiration for Zeppelin among the thinking classes. That there is also much of the popular enthusiasm which everywhere attaches to a new record or to a spectacular discovery we would not deny. But the public looks to positive results of value from the leadership of Zeppelin.

The airship carnival at Rheims has marked a great step forward in aerial science. We refer, of course, not to the broken records, nor to the unparalleled number of contestants, nor to the unnumbered spectators. What it will really be remembered for, when even Blériot's name shall have been forgotten, is the imposition of the first fine for reckless flying inflicted on this earth. Later on, of course, we shall expect to see aerial courts held in captive balloons around which hover the speeder, the air-cycle policeman, and the witnesses, while the judge pronounces sentence; but until then the fine for offending above will be imposed below. The Rheims miscreant, M. Lefèbvre, paid $4 for turning corners too quickly and failing to slow down at air-current crossings, and was then congratulated for having become an historic offender. M. Lefèbvre to-day doubtless likens himself to Adam as the first of another long line of sinners. We trust he was duly warned that a second offence will be more severely punished, and that a third will land him in jail, even if his speedometer should show twenty-five miles an hour less than that of the policeman who arrests him.

The Argentine Republic's foreign trade statistics for the last year will probably be used to bolster up the subsidy campaign soon to be made in Congress for fast steamship lines to South America. The statistics in question show that the United States ranks third in foreign trade with the Argentine. Great Britain leads with $23,899,855, in exports; Germany stands second with $11,789,490; and the United States third with $8,987,317. Mr. John Barrett, the director of the Bureau of American Republics, comes forward with the usual remedy. Unless there are "fast and commodious steamers" to carry passengers, mail, and express traffic, he thinks that commerce between the American republics cannot be expected to grow. In the promotion of this commerce, the State Department in conjunction with the Department of Labor and Commerce will translate the commercial laws of South American States into English for the benefit of our merchants. It is hardly necessary to remark that our merchants would do far better to acquaint themselves and their agents with the language of these countries than to possess English translations of South American codes. One of the main reasons for Germany's expansion in foreign trade is the scientific way German merchants study foreign fields. Their factors speak the languages of the countries with which they trade. Their prospectuses appear in the same tongues. They study the methods of packing goods that are customary in these countries.

Another "crisis" in Greece is tided over, growing out of Cretan unrest, but the question of Crete remains full of explosive material. Greece strongly desires the formal annexation of Crete, and so do apparently the majority of the inhabitants of that island. In intervening to prevent immediate action towards union, the Powers say nothing about the ultimate solution of the problem. Their only explanation is that they cannot permit at present a rupture which would endanger the new régime in Turkey, or imperil the peace of Europe. In the end, there can be little doubt, the flag of Greece will be hoisted in Crete, and allowed to stay there. The old passion for liberation from the Turkish yoke still burns in Cretan bosoms. That it also continues to kindle in lifelong sympathizers at a distance, is shown by the remarkable letter which the *Evening Post* recently published, written by Julia Ward Howe, in behalf of Cretan freedom.

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ADMINISTRATIVE DISCIPLINE.

The resignation of Mr. McHarg, Assistant Secretary of Commerce and Labor, is to be accepted by the President. This follows hard upon Mr. McHarg's public attack upon the policy of forest and water-power conservation, with open sneers at colleagues in the government service. It is explained, to be sure, that the assistant secretary did not, in any case, intend to stay in the Department longer than October 1, so that his resignation may be merely hastened by recent events. But the public will be sure to take it as a pendant to the Pinchot-Ballinger controversy, and as a sign that Mr. Taft has determined to put an end to the bickerings among his subordinates. It certainly was time for official discipline to be vindicated and enforced.

It is well known that, under President Roosevelt, administrative methods were left at loose ends. With a Chief Executive who could let nothing alone, we had also a set of subordinates with no due sense of subordination. Assistants magnified themselves above their immediate superiors. Commissioners ignored Secretaries. It was common for Mr. Roosevelt to go over the heads of his Cabinet officers and set men under them to working directly on his orders. To him they also reported directly, instead of through their titular chiefs; and the sight was frequent of commissioners and special agents hovering about the President, or dragged out by him into the limelight that beat upon the White House. This made them happy and proud, no doubt, and fed the newspapers with sensations, but it was not good administration. A President who would do his work easily and well, must dispatch the vast business of his office in an orderly manner. Having chosen his heads of department, he must work through them, giving them great responsibility, but then holding them responsible. Their assistants must get orders from them, and must be content to report to them, instead of flying to the President. This is the natural method of large administration, which, it is evident, President Taft has sought to restore. The bevy of favored assistants is no longer seen daily at the White House. The President does his official work through official channels. This is as it should be. It may be hard on the young heroes who used to bask in the Roosevelt sunshine, but it will do them good to work again for the joy of working, fulfilling in hours of gloom, as the poet advises them, the tasks in hours of insight willed.

More is needed, however, than this due subordination. There must also be something like "team play." An official in one department should not be allowed openly to rail at one in another. Least of all, should public charges and recriminations be permitted to fly back and forth between different members of the executive departments. The unhappy significance of the dispute between Chief Forester Pinchot and Secretary Ballinger, as now of the railing accusations made by Mr. McHarg, has been primarily that the President's subordinates were not pulling together, and that discipline was breaking down. If these men have their sharp differences, the thing should be kept to themselves, or settled privately, not shouted from the housetops. If there is an issue of fact, let it be tried out in the office, before their respective chiefs. If it is a question of public policy, let them remember that it is not their function to shape it. Whatever information or advice they have to give their superiors will doubtless be welcome; but having given it, they should keep silence; or, if the President and his Cabinet go on making such grievous mistakes that the fourth assistant or the third deputy simply cannot stand it, resignations can always be offered and accepted.

Behind all these questions of administrative method and of the personnel of government, stands a larger issue. It is that of procedure in accordance with law. This lies at the root of the agitated differences between Mr. Pinchot and Secretary Ballinger. The latter, with the approval, of course, of President Taft, made up his mind, as a lawyer, that the action of the Roosevelt Administration, towards its end, in withdrawing great tracts of forest land, was without due warrant of law. That being so, there was nothing for it but to rescind that executive order, as it has been rescinded, care being taken that no site for water power should be covertly taken up. It is not contended that the policy which Mr. Pinchot advocates is not wise. The fullest recognition is made of his fine spirit and self-denying labors. But the new Administration sets out to comply strictly with the law governing this and all other matters. It is to be presumed, therefore, that President Taft will lay the whole case before Congress, and urge the enactment of statutes to make entirely legal what is confessed to be desirable. This is no reversal of the "Roosevelt policies," except as they were policies without regard to the law.

In taking this stand, President Taft must have been fully aware that the pack of little idolators of Roosevelt would open on him. They are, in fact, already in full cry. But it would, in any event, have been impossible to satisfy them. They were persuaded, from the first, that "Taft was sure to make a mess of it," by contrast with his predecessor, and it was only a question of time when they should proclaim the worst, with brandished muck-rakes. Those modern implements of torture the President can well afford to disregard, provided he succeeds in asserting administrative discipline and basing governmental action firmly upon the law of the land.

REFORM OF JUDICIAL PROCEDURE.

The American Bar Association does well to heed the growing dissatisfaction with the administration of justice through the courts. At the meeting in Detroit, the committee, appointed two years ago to consider the evil of the law's delays and the vexing uncertainties of litigation, has brought in a report which is at once an admission of abuses and an effort to correct them. This representative body of American lawyers rightly feels that the initiative in reform must come from them. It is a question of professional obligation as well as professional standing. If the law is too often brought into contempt, and courts made the object of bitter and well-founded reproach, it is time for the bar to bestir itself.

In the comprehensive and radical recommendations of the committee, we find first, decided approval given to the doctrine of "harmless error." That is to say, the committee urges a reform by which verdicts shall not be set aside for technical error that does not go to the merits of the case. The Supreme Court of Oklahoma has recently refused to reverse a lower court, though obvious but unimportant errors had crept into the trial. It is no derogation of justice to maintain that a litigant has

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enjoyed all his legal rights even if some minor ruling against him by a judge was not strictly correct, so long as the decision against him, on the real issue joined, was manifestly just. This particular reform in judicial procedure has long been advocated by enlightened judges, like Mr. Justice Brewer. President Taft has also put himself on the side of those who would have the courts think more of substantial justice than of impeccable technique, and make the trial and adjudication of cases simpler, swifter, and less costly. In this sense, the committee of the Bar Association proposes several changes in procedure, to do away with the duplication of papers, multiplication of court officials, and the like.

When all is said and when every reform of method is made, much will depend upon the diligence and efficiency of judges. It is undoubtedly the fact that too many of them are deficient in industry, or in capacity to keep up with the business of their courts. The law's delays are too often the delays of a judge. A case in point comes from Indiana. One judge in that State has had before him for more than two years a demurrer in a suit wherein the plaintiff alleges that, for over six years, he has been kept out of the use of $10,000 rightfully belonging to him. Yet over a mere pleading in demurrer a lazy judge has dawdled for two years—and this in spite of the clear law of the State:

> Whenever any issue of law or fact is submitted to the court for trial, and the judge shall take the same under advisement, the judge shall not, except in the case of severe illness of himself or family, hold the same under advisement for more than sixty days.

If judges themselves will not obey the law, how can they expect to force others to regard it? Such abuses as this if unchecked will run into such scandals as used to make the delays in Chancery in England so notorious. Lord Eldon once held a case "under advisement" for more than twenty years, and even then could be spurred to a decision only by Brougham's bringing the matter to the attention of Parliament.

The second part of the committee's recommendations looks to a reorganization of the courts themselves. This is not to be acted upon immediately; the intention is to have the matter considered by the profession and brought up for decision next year. In general, the proposal is for the embodiment of the judicial power of each State in a court that shall be an organic whole, consisting of three branches—county courts (including municipal), a superior court of first instance, and a single ultimate court of appeal. This system should be so organized as to prevent both waste and conflict of judicial work, and should have a directing head who should be "responsible for failure to utilize the judicial power of the State effectively." Something like this system is submitted to the voters of New Jersey, in the constitutional amendment to be passed upon in a special election next month. Its acceptance by that State would obviously further its general adoption, as urged by the Bar Association.

It is needless to labor the high importance of these proposed judicial reforms. There is doubtless much unreasonable discontent with the processes of the courts, but there is also a great deal that is justified. To remove it as speedily and completely as possible, is the plain duty of bar and bench. That reverence for judges and courts which all sober-minded citizens feel it essential to keep unimpaired, will be heightened by the very sight of the leaders of the American bar undertaking to make justice more prompt and sure.

THE ZINC-ORE TARIFF OUTRAGE.

On March 20 last, according to the *Mining and Engineering Journal*, the price of sulphide zinc ore was $40.00 per ton; on August 14, the price was $52.50. This simple statement tells the story of as barefaced a tariff robbery as has yet come to light since the passage of the Payne-Aldrich law. A clearer illustration of government-sanctioned graft, it would be difficult to find. Zinc-ore under the Dingley tariff was on the free list. Secretary Shaw once made an effort to lay duties on imports, but after prolonged litigation the government was compelled to refund the amounts he had collected. Thereafter, zinc was imported free until the "revision downward" of this summer, when, in the face of many protests, zinc-ore was taken from the free list and not merely a duty levied upon it, but a prohibitive duty. From free trade to total exclusion of foreign ores—that is what explains the more than thirty per cent. rise in the price per ton.

Now, a duty of one cent per pound of zinc contents in zinc-ore means a duty of $12 per ton. The new tariff places that duty of one cent per pound on all ore containing over 25 per cent. of zinc—the quotations we have given were for 60 per cent. zinc-ore. Hence the price of ore has already reached the high level made possible by the tariff. Thus the government has as plainly put $12.50 into the pockets of every zinc mine owner who produces a ton of ore as if Congress had ordered it paid in cash. Zinc mining is, of course, no manufacturing enterprise. There can be no talk here of protecting home skill and industry; nor does the wage difference really count, in view of the accessibility of domestic markets. It cannot, moreover, be alleged that this is an infant industry in need of protection. Besides, prohibition is not protection even according to the gospel of McKinley. What has happened is that Congress has deliberately created a monopoly and said to the rich Missouri zinc producers: "Here, mulct the American people as you see fit." For the price of spelter, which corresponds to pig iron, has, of course, risen with that of the ore, from $4.75 at New York on March 20 last, to $5.82½ per 100 lbs. on August 21.

To state the case in another way, Congress has licensed the ore producers to tax American consumers at the estimated rate of $2,500,000 a year, all of which goes straight into the pockets of the mine-owners. Yet zinc is really the "poor man's metal," being used in galvanizing, in making brass, and serves many other purposes when the consumer cannot afford copper or porcelain or bronze. It is characteristic of the hypocrisy of the Republican party in all tariff matters that, deeply concerned as it is about the welfare of the laboring man, it is quite ready to let him pay tribute to the zinc-mine owners for every zinc article he purchases. The pretence is, of course, the protection of the miner in the Joplin district of Missouri which produces 60 per cent. of the zinc of this country. There could not be a flimsier pretence. The real reason is that Speaker Cannon, when campaigning in that district last year, promised to put a duty on zinc ore if a Republican member were returned from the Joplin district. The Republican was chosen, the Speaker has kept his word, Congress has done his bidding. If he could not pay Littauer what he owed

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him politically, he has settled in full with Joplin.

We do not ask any one to take our word for it that the duty on zinc-ore was unnecessary. We have experts' opinions for it. Jesse A. Zook, the leading statistician of the Joplin district, in an article in the Joplin, Mo., *Daily Globe* for January 26, 1908, thus summarized the results of the trying year of 1907: "The lesson of the 1907 panic has clearly demonstrated that the Joplin district can stand a severe panicky condition, and continue the output of ore necessary to keep tne smelters supplied." It quoted with approval the opinion of another expert, Walter Renton Ingalls, in the *Mining and Engineering Journal*, who declared that in the light of 1907, "foreign ores are not serious competitors of the American, *duty or no duty*." To this, Mr. Zook added the significant statement that "no importations of ores were made [in 1907], except to supply a demand in excess of the domestic production." All of those facts were brought out during the debate in Congress in which Senators Burton of Ohio and Kean of New Jersey were conspicuous in their opposition to the duty. But the Speaker's word had been given and no more than a king's could it be broken. Mr. Kean was particularly useful in proving by an authentic letter that a chief lobbyist from Joplin was actually buying up Mexican ores for sale in Europe, in the confidence that they would be prohibited here. He also brought out the indisputable fact that the Joplin district is beyond foreign competition, and that any protective tariff on ores "is equivalent to a premium on the speedy exhaustion of certain natural resources, which, once used, can never be reproduced."

Never was a case more clearly proved, but there was no one at hand to settle the matter in favor of the ultimate consumer. Mr. Taft made his stand on other schedules and left the mine owners and controlling politicians to settle it to suit themselves. This sort of thing is the reason why to growing numbers of persons protection is synonymous with theft and corruption. The Joplin mine owners, not content with having control of a rich gift of nature, wanted a law to swell their profits. Of course, they had Democratic aid for their schemes: Senator Stone was quite aware of the necessity of placing a tariff for revenue only on zinc-ores and favored it with Democratic subtlety. But this merely illustrates afresh the truth that one cannot touch the tariff pitch without being defiled. It would have been much better, because far less corrupting and more equitable, if Congress had voted the $12.50 per ton out of the Treasury direct.

THE OUTPUT OF DOCTORATES.

There is always experienced a sense of relief when the final statistics of a periodic movement are announced. When we know the exact number of commercial failures for the year, or learn the precise extent of Fourth of July casualties, there emerges the feeling that now at least we have the worst. Something of this character must be our reflections upon the completed score of Ph.D.s conferred in the last academic year. To *Science* for August 20, we are indebted for this information, as well as for comparative figures for the past twelve years. Three hundred and seventy-eight doctorates were conferred by American universities in 1909, exactly the same number as were granted in 1908, but more than one hundred in excess of the average for the last ten years. As yet there are not issued statistical forecasts indicating the relative condition of the forthcoming crop of Ph.D.s, or estimating the number "in farmers' hands," or "afloat." But the figures given are portentous enough in all conscience.

Twelve years ago, only about two hundred of these higher degrees were annually conferred, so that it appears that the flow of erudition has almost doubled in a decade. In the totals, for the past twelve years, the University of Chicago leads with 448 to its account, as compared with 436, 418, and 394 for Columbia, Harvard, and Yale, respectively. The Johns Hopkins University, which at the outset was easily first, has fallen astern, though if its doctorates with those of Cornell and Pennsylvania are added to those of the Big Four for twelve years past, we have accounted for 2,579 as against 892 for thirty-five other universities. Among State institutions Wisconsin comes first with 110, while there are eighty-six to the credit of Michigan and forty-seven to that of California. In the distribution of theses over the field of knowledge, the sciences in 1909 claimed exactly one-half of the total number, whereas in the first ten years of the period but 45 per cent. fell within that class. Of the sciences, chemistry out-distances the rest with a proud record of 413 for the twelve years, as compared with 202 for physics, which, in turn, is followed by zoölogy, psychology, mathematics, and botany, in the order indicated.

The summary in *Science* gives the titles of all the theses in the natural and exact sciences. In this connection one word of suggestion may be ventured. Where the technical nature of the work is such that only the expert can divine its meaning, a sub-title, preferably in English, might well be added to indicate to the lay reader something of the approximate content. For example, one stands quite unenlightened after reading such a title as: "The Intracellular Encymes of Penicillium and Aspergillus with Especial Reference to those of Penicillium Camemberti." Unless we knew beforehand that it contained an investigation in the field of science, one might suspect that it was the study of an Etruscan bill of fare. Of couse, the necessity for a sub-title does not apply universally. We know from mere inspection, for example, that degrees conferred for knowledge evidenced by "American Varieties of Beans" or "The Effect of Cold Storage on Chicken Meat" are simply typical of "the ordinary Ph.D. of commerce."

Much more serious, however, is the question how this large number of young doctors is to be assimilated by the crowded staffs of university instruction, or the limited capacities of research laboratories. The danger of an intellectual proletariat would seem not to be confined to Germany. And yet the fact is, as every college president and departmental head knows, that good college teachers are scarce, surprisingly scarce. The truth is that the doctor's degree, or the master's degree, which originally was a *licentia docendi*, has long ceased to be a guarantee of capability or efficiency for teaching. There is some grain of truth in the feeling that it often positively unfits for the kind of teaching that undergraduates most require. Specialization in research, too often leads the newly fledged doctor to look with something like disdain on the inculcation of the more elementary facts that make up the staple of ordinary col-

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lege work. Almost inevitably the candidate for a college instructorship wants to stipulate that he may offer an elective course in what he calls his specialty, or at least a number of graduate courses. Many a college president must pathetically appeal to his new instructors in Tennysonian language to come down "from yonder mountain height," and "to cease to move so near the Heavens." It was bad enough when the old paradox was launched that a university course unfitted a man for business. But what shall we say of the newer paradox that the higher research often seems to unfit a man for teaching?

Despite the fact that the name of doctorate in philosophy is now employed in a purely technical sense, and that most of the German and American universities no longer require the candidate to pass any examination in a specifically philosophical course, the question emerges whether some reversion to the old idea would not be serviceable. Of course, there is no reason why an investigator in most departments should be expected to have special knowledge of any particular philosophical discipline. He may even be excused any detailed knowledge of the history of philosophical thinking. But for the bearer of the Ph.D. degree to be wholly ignorant of the more general interrelations of his province to other parts of the field of knowledge, makes for narrowness. If philosophy be construed broadly as a knowledge of the general trend of scientific thought and method; if the *commune vinculum* of the sciences be regarded as a real thing so that the various fields of research are inevitably bound together by certain intellectual filaments; and if it may be fairly presumed on the Ph.D.'s part that he has envisaged the common domain of all investigators, we might have a guarantee, which now we lack, that the newly made doctor is not the unilateral specialist he so often proves to be.

MORAL UPLIFT IN GARDENING.

The great vogue which out-of-door activities enjoy in this generation naturally creates a corresponding philosophy of nature, satisfying its devotees, doubtless, even though a bit superficial. Two notable utterances have, of late, associated gardening with an inner impulse making for the moral betterment of the Man with the Hoe. Lord Rosebery, in his speech opening the local flower show at Cramond, created one of those graceful illusions in language which quite belies his sad personal disclaimer of any knowledge of flowers. And our own Professor Bailey, chairman of the Country Life Commission, crowns his report with a pastoral on the future of the rural church which makes up in earnestness what the report may lack in beauty of expression. It is true that these two declarations have many points of divergence. Lord Rosebery is felicitously saying the pleasing thing before friends and neighbors whose flower show is quite as much intended as an occasion for general gossip as for an exhibition of plants and fruits. Our Uplift Commission, however, is in grim earnest from beginning to end. Its language is that of the Horticultural Exhibition, not that of the modest flower show. But the conclusions of both the lonely plougher of the sands and of the practical head of the experiment station are almost identical as to the intrinsic moral invigoration which the garden evokes.

Lord Rosebery's praise of the gardener's life strikes one, however, as having been excogitated rather in the library than in the open air. Its deft allusions to the story of Eden, to Lord Bacon's essay on Gardens, and to the literature of the subject—from which he expressly bars nurserymen's catalogues—lead one to conclude that the noble lord's address smells of the lamp, rather than of the sod. This, however, is probably inevitable. The most ardent woodsman is rarely gifted with his pen. It is hard to extort from him in confidential converse how he feels about nature. A Maine guide or Indian trapper can no more describe the sensations which he experiences in the open than could a moose. It requires a "Gigadibs, the literary man," to create the illusion of "atmosphere" for the magazine reader, whose enjoyment of nature is often most keen when he can read about it by the open fire, after a good dinner at home, and in the certain expectation that there will be a roof over him when he goes to bed. But the genial banter which plays over Lord Rosebery's praise of the art and healthfulness of gardening, sobers into quiet earnestness when he sounds the moral note. To the ex-Premier, "the gardener, by the nature of his occupation, is, or should be, physically and intellectually and morally the best of our rural population, . . . daily and hourly face to face with the elevating mystery of nature."

It is right here that our Country Life Commission joins hands with the English scholar. Only—as was to be expected—Professor Bailey and his confrères, not content with simply bestowing moral approval on the agriculturalist—intend to organize the State and Church for his encouragement. Averse as we are to throwing cold water on the excellent suggestions of the commission, we fear that some of its conclusions savor of an indiscriminate blending of things which have no necessary or essential connection. The idea that "a course in a good agricultural college would wisely supplement training in a theological seminary," seems to have been anticipated by the schoolboy's essay exploited by Mark Twain, where the remark is dropped that "a good many donkeys are found in theological gardens." To what extremes the proposed fusion may go is illustrated by the enthusiastic editorial support accorded thereto by the *Independent*. Says that journal: "The minister of the rural church ought to know more of what Jesus knew, and what Burbank knows." The natural query would seem to be—why ring in the founder of Christianity at all? The rural pastor does his duty to his parishioners, according to the new gospel, when he spends "half of his time either in his own garden or in their gardens and fields, talking grapes and pears, instead of original sin and total depravity." Progressive orthodoxy, too, takes on a bucolic cast, for we are told that "Experiment Station Bulletins are one of the modern forms of inspiration; revelations of the Divine Will in Nature"!

There is some danger in this blending of things and ideas which are essentially distinct. There is a world of good inherent in the movement back to the land. There is a healthful reaction against the evils of urban congestion, and a wholesome revival of the tonic qualities of life in the country. But the truth is that occupations and avocations as well as residence in town or country are, of themselves, morally indifferent, and only by reflected light take on the character and nature of the human personalities which create a moral

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atmosphere. Marcus Aurelius found that virtue could be practised *et in palatio*. And despite Lord Rosebery and Professor Bailey, it is not yet extinct in city life. Historically, there has perhaps never been in the towns a sordid moral degradation comparable to the serfdom of Europe since mediæval times. The old idea that "God made the country, and man made the town," was fairly well exploded by Holmes's retort that God made the cave and man made the house. In our enthusiasm as new converts to the cult of the open-door life, let us not imagine that we have discovered a universal moral renovator. A new, a real, and an innocent delight in gardening may add immensely to our store of pleasures, but there is no certainty that, under the shade of the gardener's hat, the human heart will invariably beat in tuneful unison with the Divine.

THE STATUS OF THE SUMMER SCHOOL.

Ten years ago, the university summer school, from whatever point of view one chose to regard it, was admittedly a problem. Hardly anywhere could be found a faculty the majority of whose members did not look upon it with a mixture of distrust and disdain, or hesitate long before allowing its courses to count towards a degree. With the exception of younger men frankly in need of money, professors were indisposed to undertake summer teaching, and yielded grudgingly to the official pressure sometimes put upon them. Even presidents and governing boards showed their lack of confidence, as indeed most of them do still, by insisting, as a rule, that the school should live upon its income from fees, with the result that financial support was limited and sometimes precarious. The fact that the students, who, for some reason, manifested a disposition to come in increasing numbers, were mainly secondary school teachers without collegiate training, seemed to stamp the work as necessarily of low grade, however exalted the language of the printed announcement. One heard freely the prediction that the summer school would either degenerate speedily into a teachers' "institute" devoted to the exploitation of "methods," or else, like many another well-meant device for the dissemination of culture, would have its day and presently cease to be.

If the disturbing problem of a decade ago has not yet been fully solved, some, at least, of its conditions have unquestionably become clearer. For one thing, the summer school has manifestly come to stay. While the number of such schools does not much increase, there seems to be not the slightest reason for expecting the discontinuance of any of those now well established. It is significant that enrolments have ceased to fluctuate materially, and that growth in numbers tends to conform in the main to that in other departments of the university. Further, professors of the higher grades are increasingly willing to teach during the summer, though preferably in places other than those in which they teach during the remainder of the year; and a surprisingly large number of the best known scholars in all departments now accept such appointments more or less regularly. As a direct consequence of this wider and more representative participation in the work of instruction, there has come about a more generous recognition of summer courses in fulfilment of the requirements for degrees, and this, too, not alone by the institution under whose immediate direction the work is done, but by other institutions as well.

These are substantial gains. On the other hand, acquaintance with a number of representative schools in different sections of the country leads me to the conclusion that the summer school, considered as an agency for the spread of higher education, has as yet passed but little beyond the rudimentary stage. Neither in organization, nor in programme of studies, nor in coördination of courses and departments, nor in effectiveness of work, does it yet compare favorably at all points with the regular academic department with which it is most closely affiliated. The faculty is a constantly changing body, rarely meeting for any save a social purpose, and hired to carry out a scheme of work over the formulation of which it has little or no control. In no summer school with which I am familiar is there anything fairly to be designated as a curriculum. Of the courses offered, the majority appear to be elementary courses in subjects most likely to appeal to the secondary school teacher, and with considerable variation in subject and content from year to year. Advanced courses, though offered almost everywhere, are few in number and seem to attract few students, though at this point the experience of different schools varies considerably. While the tendency seems to be to increase the number of departments in which work is offered, rather than the aggregate offerings in each department, it still not infrequently happens that important departments do not appear at all, or are represented by one or two elementary courses only.

The make-up of the summer student body is another disquieting feature. While the number of graduates often attains large proportions—332 of the 931 students at Harvard this summer held academic degrees—the attendance of undergraduates does not seem to indicate a very widespread desire to shorten the four-year course by doing summer work. Moreover, it must be confessed that a considerable proportion of summer undergraduates are the "lame ducks," who have failed in one or more subjects, often at another institution, during the year, and who bear the burden and heat of the day for the sole purpose of making up a deficiency.

On the other hand, the overwhelming preponderance of teachers in all our summer schools creates a problem of another sort. Of the hundreds of teachers whom it has been my privilege to meet in summer school classes during the past eight years, less than one-fourth have had any college training. They have usually been relatively mature persons, predominantly, of course, women, who have taught for a number of years, and whose minds have lost somewhat the habit of systematic study. That they are zealous far beyond the zeal of the average undergraduate, that they come with serious purpose and at no little sacrifice of strength and money, and that their accomplishment in a brief time is often extremely creditable, is cheerfully to be conceded; but it must also be admitted that they are inclined to look at the subjects which they are pursuing almost exclusively from the pedagogical standpoint, and give the class-room too much the air of a summer normal school. I cannot but think that the predominantly pedagogical character of the American summer school constitutes one of its greatest weaknesses as an educational institution. The most cursory inspection of a summer announcement of courses will suffice to show how pervadingly the teacher is catered to. Of a total of eighty-six courses, not counting the courses in physical training, offered this year at the Harvard summer school, forty-one were announced as designed, more or less directly, for teachers: and the proportion is not widely different at similar schools elsewhere.

Another perplexing problem is the "auditor." In the early years of the summer school the attendance of mere listeners was not encouraged, and in some cases was forbidden; but, of late, they have come even to be bid for. A number of Western schools sell an auditor's ticket, entitling the holder to attend any lectures he pleases; and the custom seems to be making headway in the East. Where a course consists of lectures only, the composition of the audience does not perhaps greatly matter; but where recitation or discussion is the order of the day, the presence of these peripatetic truth-seekers is frankly demoralizing to the regular members of the class, if not to the instructor. That the popular or informal lecture,

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dissociated from any kind of required or systematic work on the part of the listener, has a much more important place in higher education than has yet been accorded to it, I, for one, firmly believe; but experience in five large summer schools compels me also to believe that the combination, in one exhibit, of the characteristic features of a college or university on the one hand, and of a sublimated Chautauqua assembly on the other, has thus far proved highly unsatisfactory.

Two consequences, which, ten years ago, were often instanced as pretty certain to follow the extension of the summer school habit, have not thus far come about. Summer teaching, though obviously an added portion of accustomed service to the teacher, does not seem to have been the baleful source of physical and mental exhaustion which was freely predicted, nor to have interfered disastrously with the professorial study and writing for which a long vacation has come to be thought essential. Save in regions where the summer climate is peculiarly unfavorable to exertion, I have yet to hear any considerable number of university men speak of their summer teaching in terms of strain; while, with many, the change of scene is not seldom in itself a rest. I do not speak particularly of the advantages of summer school work in facilitating university interchange, or increasing one's acquaintance with men and institutions, or broadening one's outlook upon the educational world, though in all of these directions the benefits seem to me to be conspicuous. On the other hand, the prediction that, once the summer school was firmly established, all the colleges and universities would presently be running twelve months in the year, has proved to be quite without foundation. Not even the example of the University of Chicago, whose four-quarter system caused a good deal of quaking among the educational dry bones, has encouraged other institutions to go and do likewise. Even granting that a three months' vacation, spent as many undergraduates and some professors spend it, is an unconscionable waste, the once heralded demand for the redemption of the summer by projecting into it the ordinary habit of the year, makes no headway, nor does it seem likely to do so as long as the work of the summer school continues to be so sharply differentiated, in scope and method, from the regular work of the institution.

What has been done, in substance, is to append to the university, mainly in the interest of those who cannot pursue systematic studies during the rest of the year, a sort of combined extension and normal department, in which elementary courses intended principally for teachers vie with courses for delinquents, a few advanced courses for graduates and undergraduates, and lecture courses for listeners. As a link between the quasi-academic public and the university, and as a means of strengthening the influence of the university in the community, it must be reckoned one of our most important educational agencies. Whether it can go further, and offer in the summer approximately the same kind of educational opportunities that are available at the university during the remainder of the year, is yet to be demonstrated.

WILLIAM MACDONALD.

Brown University.

NEWS FOR BIBLIOPHILES.

Although Walter Greg's theory as to the origin of the more common Shakespeare quartos, put forth originally in the *Library* of April, 1908, has been denied by some Shakespearean students, the subject still excites the interest of American collectors and bibliographers.

The theory, which was noted in the *Nation* of May 21, 1908, is, briefly, that the nine following quartos, "Merchant of Venice," 1600 (Roberts edition); "Midsummer Night's Dream," 1600 (Roberts edition); "Sir John Oldcastle," 1600 (T. P. edition); "King Lear," 1608 (N. Butter edition); "Henry V," 1608; "Merry Wives of Windsor," 1619; "Yorkshire Tragedy," 1619; the "Contention of York and Lancaster," 2 parts (n. d., but 1619), and "Pericles," 1619, were all printed by Thomas Pavier in the year 1619, bound together, and sold as a collected edition of Shakespeare's works. Of the first four of the above list, there are, it will be remembered, other editions of the same dates. Those editions are proven by the texts to be the earlier and are also very much rarer. It is surmised that Pavier, who already owned the copyrights of five out of the nine plays, surreptitiously reprinted the others, with the old dates in order to have ready a volume which might in a measure forestall the first folio, then under way, though not published until 1623.

George Watson Cole, editor of the "E. D. Church Catalogue," recently completed, has in the Boston *Transcript* of August 25 a two-column article giving a summary of what has been published on the subject. At the Bretton Woods meeting of the Bibliographical Society of America in June Mr. Cole presented statistics showing the relative abundance in collections here and abroad of these quartos. At that time he was able to locate 196 copies of the ten pieces (the "Whole Contention" being considered as two), the lowest number traced of any one book being seventeen copies of the "Merry Wives." Now, by including a few others recently traced in other collections or in the hands of booksellers, and those which have been disposed of at auction since his list in the Church Catalogue was made up, he has increased his total to 222 pieces, the smallest number of any one play being nineteen. He has not included Bishop Gott's set (he had all but "King Lear"), which would bring the total to 231, with a minimum of twenty. It is pretty certain also that Marsden J. Perry had a set, complete or nearly so, before he acquired the Gwyn copy (which alone is recorded by Mr. Cole), and that H. C. Folger also had a nearly complete set before he purchased the Lord Howe collection. We think, therefore, that it is not too much to say that not less than 250 copies of these ten quartos have survived to the present day, and in this number would be comprised not less than twenty-two complete sets. This, by all laws of chance, would almost prove that the books were, when issued, bound together, and so kept until comparatively recent times. Only one set intact, as issued, is now known. That, the Gwyn copy, belongs to Mr. Perry. Another, the Hussey copy, was broken up and the books offered separately at Sotheby's in June, 1906. A third, for about a hundred years in the Library of the University of Virginia, was destroyed by fire in 1895. The Capell copy in the Library of Trinity College is in two volumes, but as they are identical in size, they were probably once bound together. The same is true of the Garrick set, now bound separately, in the British Museum. All other sets apparently have been broken up and the plays widely scattered.

The Bibliophile, in company with Beverly Chew, had an opportunity recently of inspecting the ten plays in the library of W. A. White. With the volumes spread out side by side the similarity of typography was most striking. Similar series of the plays of other authors, as Ben Jonson and Chapman, displayed by Mr. White, show no such similarity. We came to the conclusion that Mr. Greg's theory is more than plausible.

The editors of the first folio probably refer to the efforts of Pavier when they speak of "the frauds and stealths of injurious impostors." That the practice of surreptitiously printing or reprinting books without authority was not uncommon fifty years later, the following extract from the "Orders, Rules and Ordinances of the Company of Stationers," printed in 1678 for the use of members, will show: That no Member or Members of the said Society, shall at any time from henceforth erect, or cause or procure or suffer to be erected any private Press or Presses, commonly called *a Press in a hole,* nor shall countenance or contribute towards the erecting or setting up of any such private Presse or Presses," under a penalty not exceeding fifty pounds. "And for the better discovery of all such private Printing-presses, commonly called *Presses in Holes,*" the discoverer was to receive five pounds.

Correspondence.

THE INSTRUCTOR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Amid the chorus of Macedonian cries raised by our universities and major colleges in recent years, I have been struck by the rarity of a word on behalf of the instructor. As one who has himself passed safely through this period, but so recently as to be unable either to forget the pit from which he was digged, or as yet to develop interests antagonistic to those of the instructor, and hence, consciously or unconsciously, to make light of his hardships, I have ventured to give voice to some complaints of many of this class.

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The situation now prevailing in our leading educational institutions is briefly this: The higher teaching and administrative positions are in the hands of older men, while the lesser administrative duties and the great bulk of the teaching rest upon the shoulders of young men just out of graduate schools. This system is unfortunate in several ways. In the first place, the mass of students in the major part of their college course come in contact only with callow, inexperienced, and (often through sheer excess of zeal) inefficient teachers. The leading professors are, in the main, accessible only to the few who have had perseverance to continue in the same line of work for several years; or if the younger students ever see the head professor at all, the distinguished man merely harangues or lectures and allows most of the work in personal contact to be done by inexperienced subordinates.

The absurdity of this whole system is manifest. On the one hand, ripened and mature professors, men of national and often international reputation, whose training and experience make them eminently fitted to instruct students, are doing a comparatively light amount of teaching, and then generally in small classes, or else merely lecturing to large ones, while young and immature instructors, with little or no experience, have heavy burdens of teaching, doing all the hard work themselves, and almost always with large classes, often too large for satisfactory instruction of any kind—in a word, the most efficient doing the least teaching work, the least efficient far more than they are capable of doing well.

Bad as all this is for the student, the effect is, perhaps, even worse upon the instructor. In the present cut-throat competition for the higher university positions every man is bound to distinguish himself within the first year or two as a teacher, investigator, or utility man, or as all three. But, instead of every opportunity being given to the tyro to show what is in him, he is immediately saddled with such a burden of teaching that the first year he can do scarcely anything but his class work, and often he glides into the second and third years without finding time for investigation. Even though his teaching hours be not excessive, his direct service to the institution is not bounded by the narrow walls of his class-room and his study—far from it! He is the general handy man about the place to manage the multitudinous administrative details of an academic or semi-academic (when not really anti-academic) nature in our up-to-date fantastically elaborate and complicated educational system. The result of all this is either that he steals time from his classes or devotes to research the precious moments of a few scanty holidays, or else, and this most frequently, he gets discouraged, and gives up the unequal struggle.

Besides this, he is forced to live upon a salary so preposterously inadequate for the service rendered or for anything more than the first brutal physical needs of life, that, if he be married, he is kept in a state of constant anxiety about his pecuniary well-being—a distraction of all conceivable kinds the worst. In our leading institutions the salaries of instructors for the first year vary from $800 to $1,200, and in the course of three to five years you may expect $1,200 to $1,500. Now the peculiar condition of life at universities has raised the standard of living in their proximity to a relatively high level. One thousand dollars will, indeed, furnish food and shelter of a certain kind, but it is, frankly speaking, foolish for an instructor with a family to attempt to live on such an income. The inevitable result is that instructors are forbearing in greater numbers every year to marry at all, or else they have few or no children. An early marriage or a fair-sized family for an instructor is openly regarded in university circles as a serious indiscretion.

And then the crying disparity in salaries! In all our leading institutions the salary of a full professor is at least three times that of an instructor on first appointment, and in many of them four or even five times. But even this ratio is unfair, as the older and more distinguished men have many opportunities for adding to their incomes from lectures, royalties, etc., which, in the very nature of the case, the young man cannot enjoy. Furthermore, this ratio is growing more uneven, and not less so. While the salaries of full professors have, without exception, risen in the past two decades, those of instructors have almost universally remained stationary, or actually been reduced! In one fairly representative institution within the last twelve years the salaries of first-year instructors have been lowered 16 2-3 per cent., while the salaries of full professors have been raised 36 4-11 per cent.

The effects of this financial embarrassment resulting from low salary and long-deferred advancement are simply that the married instructor must himself and his wife suffer hardships (and that there is real misery in university and college faculties any one realizes who knows the facts), or else he must eke out his salary by all manner of outside work, in the much-needed holidays as well as during term time, or by the preparation of cheap text-books that have positively no *raison d'être* whatsoever except to keep some enterprising publisher's press busy and some poor instructor's pot boiling.

Allow me now to suggest briefly some much needed remedies. Let the new instructor have short hours and few courses, and then demand of him that the teaching, for which he has every opportunity to prepare properly, be of high grade, while at the same time he has leisure for productive scholarship, which must also be used to good purpose; and then weed out instantly and without ruth those who fail to take advantage of their chance, and reward generously those who do. But it is repeated persistently: "It is so difficult to tell the capable from the incapable within a year or so." Granted—under the present conditions, which seem to have been cunningly devised by some malign intelligence solely to render confusion yet worse confounded; but—could any better argument be advanced for changing these same conditions?

Among many reasons for the present evils, two are paramount. First, in half-frantic megalomania, the larger institutions of the land have struggled so successfully to increase their enrolment that they have universally far more students to care for than their teaching staff of properly trained men can handle, and, as students always precede endowment, more than they can hire such teachers for at the time. The so-called problem of the undergraduate has already assumed alarming proportions in more than one institution. It is no exaggeration to say that the adequate teaching staff is always ten to twenty years behind the development in enrolment. And what is the object of this? Why, to raise more endowment to attract more students, to raise more endowment to attract more students—*ad infinitum*. To secure an endowment, equipment, and teaching staff in every way adequate to meet the very highest needs of a student patronage already within our gates is little thought of, and even if mentioned is practically unheeded by the wealthy magnates or the legislators who finance our institutions of learning.

For the university authorities are not always to blame. It is a fact sad but true that few wealthy men or local "statesmen" can be persuaded to do anything by way of ameliorating university conditions until the overcrowding of students is patent even to the high-gravel blind. Even should suitable provision be made at one time, before another year the same equipment has become inadequate for the growing classes. Yet for any university firmly to set a limit to further increase in numbers until those it already had were properly cared for, and to refuse to bid or bargain or advertise for more, while content to serve with the highest efficiency a limited number, would be almost enough to make the average American educator doubt the sanity of its administration.

The second reason is the large number of courses offered at one and the same time in our curricula. Most flourishing departments doing graduate work have from ten to twenty (and in rare cases twenty-five or more) courses running simultaneously, which keep perforce a large staff of men all working at the top of their bent. This is sheer wastefulness and nothing less. A mere glance at the list of courses offered in a real university (for example, one in Germany) would be an excellent curative. A comparatively small number of subjects is offered, and these are changed from semester to semester, only a few fundamental courses being regularly repeated. But the whole repertoire of what each man is capable is not displayed in the shop windows all the time; while with us, if all the courses were included in reckoning that are "not given in 1908-9," or perhaps have not been given for years, if ever, and will never be given again if they have ever been given at all, the figures would be almost fabulous. As in a cheap shop, nothing can be taken for granted, so most university and college catalogues, while professing to be both historical and prophetic, are generally either misleading or silly, and usually both. There is simply no need that a student should be able to select subjects at any instant from the whole range of human knowledge. Let him study the first year what the professors are prepared to give, and, if he needs more, let him remain another year, or even longer than that. There is not a particle of reason why our courses of study might not be arranged uniformly in recurring series, giving thus the widest possible range, but making no attempt to cover the whole field at once. Our present irrational scheme seems based on the assumption that the

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strength of a department consists in the number of courses offered simultaneously and not in the utmost efficiency of presentation. W. A. O.

August 23.

A PRESIDENTIAL ROAD TO LEARNING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There is no subject, not even excepting the tariff, in regard to which the popular mind is so confounded as in regard to "liberal education." This entity is generally admitted to be a good, but if we inquire further what it is thought to be, or how it may be gained, the answer is Babel. This chaos of opinion should now become a cosmos. For now comes the highest educational authority in the country and tells us through multifarious advertisement how we may gain this unknown good almost gratis and almost painlessly. All that we need to do is to purchase the Eliot Library, and devote to its conscientious perusal fifteen minutes per day. If we consume these sixty bottles (and no others) in small daily doses, the most famous doctor in the land guarantees over his signature that according to the best of his belief we shall reach the state of mental health, which is liberal education. The remedy is absolutely democratic; there are no specifications as to age, sex, or previous condition of mental servitude.

So much for the authoritative method by which a liberal education may be obtained. No definition of the term is given explicitly, but a definition is clearly implied in the method, and can easily be deduced from it. In the first place, a liberal education is a sort of by-product. Hereafter no one need concern himself with spending years in its attainment. It is rather a matter of spare minutes; something that can be picked up out of hours, like stenography or Esperanto. A plumber, for instance, can gain it by taking a volume of the Eliot Library—let us say the "Meditations" of Marcus Aurelius—and reading it every day as he rides on the electric car from his shop to the houses where he is to work.

It is interesting, by the way, to note that this view of liberal culture as a by-product has just been expressed by another writer on education. In an essay in the August *Atlantic*, Dr. Homer Edmiston takes the position that culture is an incidental result of vocational training. He says:

> A mind trained along the line of its true development grows and expands as naturally as does a tree planted in the right conditions of soil, air, and sunlight. . . . The craftsman trained to the practice of even a minor art has had a better preparation than the academic student for the appreciation of poetry, because he, as well as the poet, has been touched with the spirit of that "art which shares with great creating nature."

If we accept this view, it follows that even the reading of the Eliot Library is not necessary for a liberal education. But this seems extreme.

To return to the deduction of our definition. Secondly, since liberal education is to consist solely in the reading of books, it must be purely a matter of intellectual acquirement; that is, of learning. We are to read, assimilate, and memorize; since no provision is made for the exercise of the judgment, of the imagination, or of the constructive power of the mind, it evidently follows that these matters have no place in a liberal education. Physical training, the development of the body, and social training, manners, and all that relates to them, are clearly excluded. (We have Arnold's word for it that Milton's Prose Works are not an ideal school of manners.) It is hard to see how any ethical training is to result from the Method, or even any clear ethical precepts. What, for instance, will be the resulting moral ideas of our imaginary plumber, who, after reading the "Imitation of Christ" and Epictetus, proceeds to Middleton's "Changeling," Beaumont and Fletcher's "Maid's Tragedy," and Dryden's "All for Love"?

It almost seems as if Cardinal Newman must have had a prophetic view of Dr. Eliot's scheme, when he said fifty-seven years ago:

> What the steam engine does with matter, the printing press is to do with mind; it is to act mechanically, and the population is to be passively, almost unconsciously, enlightened by the mere multiplication and dissemination of volumes.

It is true that Newman hastens to characterize this as the "most preposterous and pernicious of delusions"; though he admits that "such innocent recreations as science and literature are able to furnish will be a very fit occupation of the thoughts and leisure of young persons; and may be made the means of keeping them from bad employments and bad companions." But, he says, in effect, you must not call this sort of thing education. "Education is a high word; . . . we require intellectual eyes to know withal, as bodily eyes for sight." Evidently we have advanced a long way from Newman's position. To make clear how far, let me quote further one of his definitions of liberal education:

> It is the education which gives a man a clear conscious view of his own opinions and judgments, a truth in developing them, an eloquence in expressing them, and a force in urging them. It teaches him to see things as they are, to go right to the point, to disentangle a skein of thought, to detect what is sophistical, and discard what is irrelevant. It prepares him to fill any post with credit, and to master any subject with facility. It shows him how to accommodate himself to others, how to throw himself into their state of mind, how to bring before them his own, how to influence them, how to come to an understanding with them, how to bear with them. He is at home in any society, he has common ground with every class. . . . He is a pleasant companion, and a comrade you can depend upon, . . . he knows when to be serious, and when to trifle. . . . He has the repose of a mind which lives in itself while it lives in the world, and which has resources for its happiness at home when it cannot go abroad.

Comparison of this definition with the one deduced from Dr. Eliot's scheme will give us a convenient measure of the educational progress of the last half-century.

HOMER E. WOODBRIDGE.

Colorado Springs, August 20.

PHYSICS AND METAPHYSICS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The editorial on "Scientific Speculations" in the *Nation* of August 19 contains the following passage:

> A second danger inherent in the prevalent method is the assumption that the internal, intrinsic, essential nature of matter's ultimate make-up is knowable at all. So far as physics has progressed, it has been by reducing observed phenomena to regular co-existences and sequences. All analogy would seem, therefore, to favor this process rather than to attempt to penetrate into the geometrical shapes of ions, or to discern whether they are spheres or disks, as certain savants in Germany are now trying to do.

Elsewhere the same article, after quoting with approval Newton's statement that he would make no hypotheses concerning the cause of universal gravitation, continues thus:

> But in the matter of light he conjectured that minute corpuscles were flung off from luminous matter—to the retardation of the development of optics for a century.

These passages and one or two others which I will not here quote prompt me to ask a number of questions.

(1.) Did Young and Fresnel in their development of optics a century or more after Newton follow, in their wave theory, a *method* essentially different from that of Newton when he was dealing with light?

(2.) Are light waves to be put into the category of "hypothetical creations" and condemned accordingly?

(3.) If it is true that the inventor of hypotheses is in danger of ignoring "the essential differences between hypothesis and fact, between metaphysics and physics," is it not also true that *a priori* condemnation of speculations concerning the "shapes of ions"—speculations the results of which are speedily put to the test of experiment—is an abuse of metaphysics, this condemnation being based on the general proposition, to which I for one make no objection, that the ultimate, essential, nature of matter is beyond human knowledge? EDWIN H. HALL.

South West Harbor, Me., August 22.

[We do not pretend to decide in these high mysteries of science. Our editorial was based on an article in the *Hibbert Journal*, by Prof. Louis T. More of the University of Cincinnati. From him we report the following answers:

(1.) The hypothesis of a wave theory of light is an hypothesis in a most elementary form, a mere expression of one way of transmitting energy. Some such simple hypothesis is probably necessary to interpret observed facts. The special and detailed hypotheses of Young and Fresnel about the character of these waves and the medium carrying them have never withstood any common-sense tests, and are in fact abandoned. Their laws stand to-day and are extraordinarily useful, their hypotheses are failures. It does not appear that their theories of the nature of the ether and the mechanism of etherial waves have led to any discovery which could not have been predicted by other hypotheses, and in my opinion the progress of the science has been retarded by them.

(2.) The expression "light waves," as being a name for the fact that heat energy of the sun reaches us, certainly need not be condemned. But if we identify these waves with any kind of material waves of which we have a sense perception, we get into such difficulties and absurdities that, to say the least, most people, including scientists,

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are more misled than benefited. Few things in human thought have been more misleading and more futile than the discussions of the properties of the ether and etherial waves.

(3.) There is as much necessity and care for embodied angels in the spiritual world as for ions in the material, and speculation as to their shapes is equally profitable for both. One thing physics has taught, that we can never put the "shapes of ions" to the test of direct experimentation.

ED. THE NATION.]

THE JAPANESE SUGAR SCANDAL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As a resident in Japan for nearly forty years, and a warm friend of the Japanese people, I wish to thank you for the editorial on the Japanese sugar scandal, which appeared in the *Nation* of August 12. Your appreciation of the swift and apparently even-handed justice meted out by the Japanese courts was a pleasure to read, after the unintelligent and too often carping criticism of Japan, in which many, even of our better papers, frequently indulge.

There was, however, one point regarding which you were perhaps misled by your informant. You state that among the delinquents was the president of the American Board of Missions College, in Kyoto. Strictly speaking, that institution never belonged to the American Board. That board has from the beginning, it is true, given it large aid, both by pecuniary subsidies and by supplying teachers; but the control has been from the first in the hands of a special board of directors. During the first twenty years, or thereabouts, all the voting members of that body were Japanese; but since 1899, three Americans, nominated by the American Board, have been included in the voting membership which has varied from fifteen to twenty.

Mr. J. T. Yokoi, the person to whom you refer, was for a few years prior to 1899 president of the college. The constitution of the college was, however, changed at that time, and he resigned the presidency. Some years later he was chosen a director, and continued to act until his arrest, but he has held no other office. He was greatly beloved by a wide circle of friends, and in spite of the fact that he has not for many years claimed for himself the name of Christian, he has been looked up to as a man of unsurpassed probity.

The pathos of the case is greatly heightened by the fact that Mr. Yokoi's father was one of the most respected of the leaders of the restoration movement of 1868. He died by the hand of assassins before the new government had won its place in the hearts of the people.

D. CROSBY GREENE.

Scituate, Mass., August 15.

Notes.

Scribners announce that Maurice Hewlett's new novel," "Open Country," will be ready for publication September 7.

Card players who wish to perfect themselves in the newest fad may be glad to hear of a little book by Capt. Browning on "Auction Bridge" (E. P. Dutton & Co.).

On the first of October T. N. Foulis of London will issue five new volumes of The Nietzsche, which is coming out under the editorship of Dr. Oscar Levy. These volumes will contain "Thus Spake Zarathustra," "The Genealogy of Morals," "Human, All-Too-Human," "The Future of Our Educational Institutions," and "The Will to Power."

The autumn and winter list of D. Appleton & Co. contains the following titles: "The Danger Mark," by R. W. Chambers; "Keziah Coffin," by J. C. Lincoln; "Through the Wall," by Cleveland Moffett; "Seymour Charlton," by W. B. Maxwell; "The Star of Love," by F. M. Kingsley; "The End of the Road," by S. P. Hyatt; "The Deeper Stain," by F. Hird; "The Price of Lis Doris," by Maarten Maartens; "An Admiral's Log," by Rear-Admiral R. D. Evans; "Army Letters from an Officer's Wife," by F. M. A. Roe; "The Confidantes of a King—The Mistresses of Louis XV," by E. de Goncourt; "Louis XVI and Marie Antoinette," by Lieut.-Col. A. C. P. Haggard; "Louise Renée de Kéroualle: Duchess of Portsmouth," by Mrs. C. Grant; "The Confessions of a Beachcomber," by E. J. Banfield; "A History of the People of the United States" (Vol. VII), by J. B. McMaster; "Francis Joseph and His Times," by the Right Hon. Sir H. Rumbold; "A History of Jamaica; from Its Discovery by Christopher Columbus to the Year 1872," by W. J. Gardner; "The Secret History of the Court of Spain, 1802-1906," by R. Challice; "The Buried City of Kenfig," by Thomas Gray; "Native Life in East Africa—The Results of an Ethnological Research Expedition," by Dr. Karl Weule; "Around Afghanistan," by Major de Bouillane de Lacoste; "Life and Adventure Beyond Jordan," by the Rev. G. R. Lees; "Rambles in Bible Lands," edited by G. L. Neil; "In the Land of the Blue Gown," by Mrs. A. Little; "A Text-Book for Nursing," by M. F. Donahoe; "Girl and Woman," by Caroline Latimer; "The Junior Republic: Its History and Ideals," by W. R. George; "Double Play," by R. H. Barbour; "The Free Rangers," by J. A. Altsheler; "The New Sophomore," by J. S. Hamilton; "Jesus, David, Joseph, and Moses," stories for children; "The Story of Sugar," by G. T. Surface; "American Business Law with Legal Forms," by J. J. Sullivan; "Elements of Transportation," by E. R. Johnson; "The Southern South," by A. B. Hart; "The History of French Literature," by A. L. Konta; "The Story of Gold," by E. S. Meade; "The Last of the Chiefs," by J. A. Altsheler; "On the Trail of Washington," by F. T. Hill; "In Line of Duty," by R. P. Hobson; "The Red Caps of Lyons," by H. Hayens; "The Man Who Made Good," by Walter Camp; "Louisa May Alcott," by Belle Moses; "Florence Nightingale," by L. E. Richards; "The Adventures of Little Knight Brave," by Mrs. F. B. Rees; "Tales of the Red Children," by A. F. Brown.

Wilhelm Busch, the creator of "Max und Moritz," who died last year, has received from the hands of Dr. Paul Carus a pious little memorial, consisting of a translation of passages from "Eduards Traum," with an appreciatory introduction (The Open Court Publishing Company). Admirers of Busch's light-hearted genius should be warned to avoid Dr. Carus's depressing analysis of humor with unconvincing examples. His attempt to demonstrate that Busch was a great humorist is so totally disinterested that it is prefaced by the candid admission that "his wit is not of the style in which I would indulge if I were a humorist."

Mr. Eugene L. Didier, veteran among students of Poe, has collected twenty-three of his articles dealing with the poet, and has published them, along with a new memoir, in a volume entitled "The Poe Cult and other Poe Papers" (Broadway Publishing Co.). As the author is aware, such a mode of publication involves either considerable editing or, what we find here, not a little repetition. As he is also doubtless aware, the view of Poe presented in the memoir and throughout the volume will not win general assent. Even readers favorably disposed to Poe will wonder how Mr. Didier manages deftly to avoid all mention of certain topics, and will cavil at his superlatives. Nevertheless, there are two reasons for recommending the book. It represents the loving labors of a pioneer student of Poe whose services have not always received due acknowledgment, and it contains anecdotes, poetical tributes, and other material useful to the student and not easily accessible elsewhere. Collectors of Poeana will want it for their shelves and, if they read it carefully, they will discover in it a quality rare in these piping days of peaceful and innocuous criticism. Mr. Didier has strong emotions and is not afraid to express them. What he has to say about a famous Southern university's conduct in inviting an unsympathetic Northern man of letters to deliver an address on Poe may seem to some unduly sectional, may even in its personalities suggest the lurid past of journalism, but will surely give a shock of grateful surprise to all who fancied that refreshing frankness could no longer be encountered in an American book.

Feminine sentiment can do no more for the pickaninny than it has done in Lucy Pratt's "Ezekiel" (Doubleday, Page & Co.). The portrait of Ezekiel is evidently drawn from knowledge, with deep and sincere feeling. He is a little darky who goes to school to a Northern girl-teacher at Hampton; and the education is mutual. The experience and attitude of "Miss North" must be taken to be the author's own. It is a distinctly Northern attitude, self-conscious and sympathetic at times almost to the point of hysteria. Ezekiel is frankly adored and yearned over because he is black, not because he is a child. He stands in the eyes of his creator as type of a down-trodden and misunderstood race. There are moments, to speak the bald truth, when she seems fairly to wallow in the pathos of him. She sees his humor, too, and there is much material for laughter in the record of his exploits and his fanciful narratives. But her chief object is to bring home "the full meaning of a bitter truth—of a childlike, willing, erring race transplanted from the gentle drift of an Oriental country to the stern, exacting West—surrounded there by another people, uncomprehending and impatient." She has, happily, no remedy to suggest save the gradual education of the two races toward a better mutual understanding.

Sir William R. Anson's new (fourth) edi-

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tion of "The Law and Custom of the Constitution" (Clarendon Press) has now reached "Parliament." Appearing after the other volumes, it is yet numbered vol. I. The author has embodied the latest practice and precedents, involving pretty large recasting. The marks of this are not always obliterated, as when the index inadvertently retains the form of opening Parliament from the Journals of 1880, while in the text the actual year used is 1906. The author discusses recent changes in democratizing the House of Commons and making it more the instrument of party, in a detached and impartial way, though his own dislike, if not dread, of existing tendencies is scarcely concealed. Himself, as is well known, a leading Conservative member of Parliament, he yet frankly sets down the Constitutional doctrine of the inability of the Lords to meddle with the Budget, in a way that makes against current pretensions of his own party. He writes: "The Commons now regard as breach of privilege not merely the imposition by the Lords of any charge by way of rates or taxes, but any dealing with the regulation or administration of such a change; and this in measures not primarily financial, but *mainly concerned with social changes.*" We have italicized the words which reject the asserted right of the Lords to cut out the tax on the increment of land. Of course, this does not deny their right to throw out the Budget altogether, if they have the stomach to do it and to face the consequences. In Sir William's new preface he expresses indebtedness to only two foreign writers on his subject; one of these is Dr. Redlich, the other President Lowell.

In order to reach a larger number of readers than could afford to buy the first edition of his "Industrial Efficiency," Arthur Shadwell has brought out a second edition in a single volume (Longmans, Green, & Co). The text of the first edition stands apparently unaltered, and the necessary additions and corrections are made in a supplementary chapter of some thirty pages. This deals chiefly, however, with British industrial conditions and legislation from 1906 to 1908. Despite the author's manifest inclination toward protectionism, the work is of the highest value, both for British and foreign readers. In the supplementary chapter Mr. Shadwell observes that Great Britain is rapidly "awakening" under the "stimulus of necessity," and expresses the belief that the progress of Socialism gives no cause for alarm.

Prof. William Denison Lyman of Whitman College, Walla Walla, Wash., in an attractive book of 400 pages, describes the "Columbia River, Its History, Its Myths, Its Scenery, Its Commerce" (G. P. Putnam's Sons), in such a way as to put the world in his debt. The son of pioneers who followed the lead of Marcus Whitman into the far West, he has grown up among the localities with which he deals, and sets forth with the glow of one to the manor born, who at the same time appreciates the finer things, the romance, the natural beauty, and the economic possibilities of the great river. His style is easy and picturesque, if sometimes a bit careless. Occasionally, as in detailing the Lewis and Clark story, we detect some minor inaccuracies in his breezy résumé of the records. But, for the most part, we find him trustworthy, and hold his book to be not only fascinating, but thoroughly studied and packed with valuable knowledge. The abounding illustrations are of a high order of merit, and well supplement the excellence of the text.

The committee in charge of the National Edition of the writings of Giuseppe Mazzini has in press two additional volumes, for which Professor Merighi has written introductions. It is expected that this edition, when completed, will include over sixty volumes. Four have already been issued. The committee has collected over eight thousand published and unpublished letters. Comparatively few belong to the years between 1828 and 1832, since political conditions rendered their possession compromising. It is believed that Mazzini's correspondence with the Ruffini brothers and with Elia Bensa, as well as many other letters which he wrote from Marseilles and Switzerland to friends in Italy, was destroyed. Enough remains, however, to make the new volume five, which embraces this period, of much greater importance than the corresponding volume of the best previous edition, the Florentine. Volume six forms a part of the political series. This edition is issued by the Tipografia Editrice Galeati of Imola.

One of the encouraging results of the exchange of professors between American and foreign universities has been the publication of several works more or less reminiscential in character, or reflecting the observation of the scientific visitor, in one field or another, while abroad. Thus far the Germans, perhaps, have been the most fruitful in putting their impressions on paper, and the latest contribution to the study of American conditions is from Prof. Carl Clemen, who last winter filled the professorship of Dr. E. D. Burton at the University of Chicago. In one of his series of monographs on "Practical Theology" (Giessen: A. Töpelmann), Professor Clemen deals with "Der Religions- und Moralunterricht in den Vereinigten Staaten von Nord Amerika," expressing his belief at the outset that the standard of moral conduct in the United States is higher than that even in his Fatherland, and that, as a result, Germany may learn much of America. Notwithstanding this higher standard of morality prevailing here and generally governing Americans, Professor Clemen did not find as much formal instruction in good morals as he would wish to see; for the American teacher tries to accomplish the results desired by indirect means, and there is a peculiar and unreasonable opposition to specific instruction of a religious character not experienced by authorities in Europe.

The *Daheim* of Leipzig, No. 40, contains, from the pen of Prof. Dr. Otto Hötzsch of the Royal Academy of Posen, a suggestive article entitled "Studenten Austausch." The author, who speaks with authority—having been once an exchange professor in America and three times one of the docents in the vacation courses for foreign students maintained by the University of Edinburgh—proposes to extend the scheme of exchanging professors by an exchange of students, also, especially between Germany, England, France, and the United States. Dr. Hötzsch recognizes the fact that such an exchange of students would be easier between Germany and France than between Germany and France on the one hand and England and America on the other. The universities and technological institutes of the first two countries are so much alike in their inner arrangements that the advancement of a student in his regular course would not suffer by such an exchange; not so, however, with England and America, where academic ideals and methods are quite different. He, accordingly, suggests, as far as Germany is concerned, that this exchange be for post-graduate work, and that the German government maintain for this purpose an institute in London, just as for scientific research it maintains institutes in Rome and in Athens. He does not wish this exchange to be confined to students of modern languages, but to be extended to all departments of the university.

One of the most instructive and interesting publications in connection with the semi-millennium celebration of the University of Leipzig is the "Leipziger Anthologie," by Gustav Werner Peters, with the subtitle "Gedichte ehemaliger Leipziger Studenten seit 1870." Naturally, it is published as a *Festgabe*. This is apparently the only Leipzig jubilee publication in the department of pure literature, the others being historical in character. In all forty-eight poets are here represented, some of them of recognized standing. Three of these forty-eight are still students in Leipzig.

The tenth volume of the publications of the Irish Texts Society contains an edition and translation by R. A. Stewart Macalister of "Eachtra an Mhadra Mhaoil" (The Story of the Crop-Eared Dog), and "Eachtra Mhacaoimh-an-Iolair" (The Story of Eagle-Boy). Both the texts are modern Irish and are found in manuscripts of the eighteenth century. The tales themselves are of uncertain date. The editor terms them "two Irish Arthurian romances," but they are such hardly more than in name. King Arthur plays, as Mr. Macalister points out, a secondary part in both of them, and the same is true in general of his knights. Even Sir Balbhuaidh (identified as Galahad by the editor, though Gawain is probably meant, as Mr. O'Rathaille argues in the August number of the *Irisleabhar na Gaedhilge*) who shares with the Crop-Eared Dog the rôle of hero in the first tale, preserves few individualizing traits, and might as well be almost any other worthy knight of the Round Table, or even a member of the Fenian Troop of Finn and Ossian. Except for the names of a few persons, it is not clear that the stories owe anything to the Arthurian cycle of romances; but it will not be possible to deal satisfactorily with the question of their sources, or to trace the stages by which the Arthurian knights came to play even so shadowy a part in Irish tradition, until more of the early Irish redactions of French and English romances have been made accessible in print. In substance, the tales are typical wonder-journeys, of the sort that Irish literature of all periods abounds in; and, as such, they contain many features of interest to the student of folklore and popular tales. The general plots fall at once into familiar categories. The Crop-Eared Dog in the first is an Indian prince who has been transformed by a jealous step-mother, and who undergoes many trials in obtaining restoration to human shape; and Eagle-Boy, in the second, is another prince, the victim of a wicked

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uncle by whom his father has been killed and his mother banished, and from whom, of course, he ultimately succeeds in winning back his kingdom.

NOTES ON TEXT BOOKS.

ENGLISH AND EDUCATION.

Houghton Mifflin Co. has started a series of useful reprints under the general title of Riverside Educational Monographs. Six of these now lie before us, slender, clearly printed volumes which sell for only thirty-five cents each: they are "Education, and Other Selections," by R. W. Emerson; "Self-Cultivation in English," by G. H. Palmer; "The Meaning of Infancy," by John Fiske; "Teaching Children to Study," by Lida B. Earhart; "Moral Principles in Education," by John Dewey, and "Education for Efficiency" and "The New Definition of the Cultivated Man," by C. W. Eliot. The plan and form of these publications we can heartily commend. We must, however, register a protest against the awkward English in the introductions of the general editor, Prof. Henry Suzzallo.

J. L. Hughes's little book, "Teaching to Read" (A. S. Barnes & Co.), is rather remarkable among utterances on this subject for its advocacy of rapidity as the proper test of proficiency in reading. "The man who reads only two pages in the time in which he should be able to read three pages is handicapped for life." In accordance with this view Mr. Hughes, who is inspector of schools for Toronto, points out that reading consists, not merely in repeating printed words aloud, but in gaining information from them. Hence, learning to read aloud in the ordinary fashion may not in reality be learning to read at all—much less to read effectively. In connection with this idea Mr. Hughes properly calls attention to the fact which has been too frequently overlooked, that in learning to speak and to read there are involved two distinct sets of processes, which should be distinguished accordingly.

Prof. G. K. Pattee's "Practical Argumentation" (Century Co.) aims in a general way to rescue argument from the kind of intellectual gymnastics to which it has been reduced by the modern methods of teaching debate and to restore it to its proper rank as a form of English composition. The mischief of the recent craze for debating consists in the circumstance that it has inclined more and more to make of argumentation a rigid and artificial methodology without much consideration for its more practical and usual functions as an occasional auxiliary of expression. It is this sort of convention which Professor Pattee endeavors to break through. His volume contains about all that is essential to his subject, and includes a number of suggestions for debate itself, without the depressing formalism which has come to characterize most treatments of the theme.

Under the title of "An Introduction to Poetry for Students of English Literature" (Henry Holt & Co.), Prof. R. M. Alden has just brought out a kind of pendant to his capital handbook of "English Verse" published a few years ago. The names indicate pretty well the different aims of the volumes. Whereas the earlier was historical and, as we like to say nowadays, "scientific," the latter is rather æsthetic and critical. It is for this reason, in part, no doubt, that the "Introduction to Poetry" appears, for all its merits, less satisfactory on the whole than the "English Verse." Not only is the subject more difficult in itself, but the treatment inevitable to a text-book is also bound to make a discussion of poetry as such seem rather jejune and commonplace. At the same time Professor Alden has produced the best manual of its kind in print. He has prudently avoided anything like an attempt at a pseudo-scientific terminology; he has covered the ground pretty thoroughly and with copious references to the most significant critical utterances on his subject; and he has taken space for some discussion of such topics as are likely to be suggestive or troublesome to the student.

"The Hudson Shakespeare" (Ginn & Co.), of which "As You Like It," "Henry V," "Macbeth," "The Merchant of Venice," and "Julius Cæsar" are already in print, has the advantage of an admirably arranged reading page, with the notes at the foot and the important variants immediately under the text, above the notes. The general plan of the work, which has made it so popular a family and school edition in the past, remains essentially unchanged, although the details have been thoroughly modernized. In particular the text itself has been treated more conservatively in accordance with present ideas and brought into closer conformity with that of the First Folio. On the whole, this new edition, to which Prof. E. C. Black and Mr. A. J. George stand sponsors, represents very fairly for the purpose the progress of Shakespearean scholarship.

MODERN LANGUAGES.

"Syntax of the French Verb," by Prof. Edward C. Armstrong, with exercises by Prof. De la Warr B. Easter (Henry Holt), is clear in statement and systematic in plan. Especially commendable are the sections on the participle, gerund, and verbal adjective, on the tenses, and on that shibboleth the subjunctive mood. The exercises, the vocabulary, and the numerous idiomatic and well-translated examples in the text fit the book for use in advanced classes in composition, while the thorough index renders it useful as a work of reference.

"Easy French Prose Composition," by H. A. Guerber (American Book Co.), consists of twenty-five stories in English, to be translated with reference to the author's "Contes et légendes," which presumably contains the same stories in French. In their English form, these are, perhaps inevitably, jerky and incoherent; their morals are somewhat flippant and commercial; and their arrangement exhibits no particular sequence with a view to the development of principles of grammar or composition.

"First Lessons in French," by P. Banderet and Ph. Reinhard, adapted by Grace Sandwith (Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.), is a graded series of vocabularies and exercises, combining the "direct" with the "indirect" or "formal" method. From the beginning, the lessons consist of complete sentences, which are soon combined into more or less interesting paragraphs. The arrangement is such as to cover, in the order of their difficulty, the elementary inflexions and syntax. The rules and paradigms involved in the several lessons are given in appendices.

"Elementary Reader of French History," edited by Freeman M. Josselyn and L. Raymond Talbot (Ginn & Co.), is a text for sight reading. Dry and summary, it nevertheless admits legendary matter like the tale of Roncesvaux and the reply of Cambronne at Waterloo. *Quaere:* Whether the first year students for whom the book is primarily intended will not prefer to read narratives that are possessed of imagination and style.

From Yale comes a reissue of Prof. F. M. Warren's editions of the "Andromaque," the "Britannicus," and the "Athalie" of Racine (Henry Holt). These have in common the same introduction, which gives a brief account of Racine's life, the principles of his dramatic art, and his versification and style. This is followed in each volume by remarks upon the particular tragedy in hand. The notes are also brief, taking much for granted on the student's part. What the student needs most is that his initial prejudices against the *genre* should be overcome. An explicit statement of its differences from the Shakespearean drama with which he is familiar, together with a simple historical account of its rhetorical and material sources in Senecan tragedy and of its critical basis in Renaissance commentaries upon Aristotle, could scarcely fail to help him towards the appreciation of Corneille and Racine.

Heath's Modern Language Series offers three new volumes. "Les Mésaventures de Jean-Paul Choppart," by Louis Desnoyers, edited by C. Fontaine, is a rather dreary picaresque "juvenile," the humor of which fluctuates between the level of Mr. Vincent Crummles and the level of Peck's Bad Boy. This trifle is entirely surrounded by an introduction, notes, a vocabulary, questions, and paraphrases for retranslation. De Tocqueville's "Voyage en Amérique," edited, with introduction, vocabulary, and notes, by R. Clyde Ford, includes the author's "Quinze Jours au désert" and extracts from his letters, together constituting the record of his travels in the American wilderness in 1831. The book should prove interesting to American boys and girls, and may even stimulate them to read the more famous "La Démocratie en Amérique." It is well that they should have an early opportunity to see their country through the eyes of foreigners—especially of sympathetic foreigners, who, like De Tocqueville, nevertheless tell the wholesome truth. "La Princesse Lointaine," with introduction and notes by J. L. Borgerhoff, is an appreciative edition of Rostand's romantic play—the latest treatment of the tale of Jaufre Rudel and the Lady of Tripoli. The introduction sets forth the material, historical and legendary, at the author's command; remarks upon some stylistic qualities of the play, and concludes with a biographical sketch of Rostand. The notes, too, are satisfactory. This edition is none the less welcome for dealing with its text as literature.

"Spanish Anecdotes," arranged by W. F. Giese and C. D. Cool (D. C. Heath), and "Spanish Tales for Beginners," edited by Elijah Clarence Hills (Henry Holt), are selections of easy and interesting material for reading and study. The second book, in particular, is better than its promise; for, besides prose narrative—by Echegaray, Escrich, Valdés, Pardo Bazán, Alarcón, and

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others—it offers short poems, with simple notes on Spanish verse. This volume may well fulfil the editor's wish that it "may awaken the student's interest in the civilization of Spain, and . . . serve as an introduction to the study of Spanish literature."

"Deutsche Gedichte zum Auswendiglernen" (Crowell & Co.), by W. P. Chalmers, is a creditable selection of German verse for memorizing. The poems are carefully graded and represent a sufficiently wide range. Considerable pains has been taken with the English notes; and altogether this book should prove a useful supplement to other texts. Goethe, Heine, Uhland, and Schiller are plentifully represented, though, of course, no two persons will agree upon selections for an anthology. For instance, we miss some of the humorous pieces of writers like Heine and Kopisch, which make excellent material for memorizing, and invariably remain longer in the mind than the austere verses to which Mr. Chalmers seems to incline.

"Goethe in Italy" (Holt & Co.) consists of a selection of extracts from the "Italienische Reise" for the classroom. Goethe's prose is by no means easy reading, even outside the classroom. The Germans in prose, as in Greek, are sadly to seek; but Prof. A. B. Nichols has wisely chosen for the present volume the more vivid and human bits of the Italian journey, omitting the geology, botany, and archæology. It is a pleasant arrangement enough for the general reader. What the classroom will say to the 113 pages of text, with only a sparse ten and a half pages of notes we are not very sure. It is Spartan fare, but carefully prepared.

LATIN AND GREEK.

Prof. E. P. Morris has edited the "Satires" of Horace on a commendable plan (Morris & Morgan's Latin Series, American Book Co.). He has restricted comment on grammar and antiquities and devoted himself chiefly to the interpretation of Horace's thought. The summaries of the different satires are fuller than usual, and the general introduction is in the main an analysis of Horace's personality and of the contemporary life that furnished him a world for satire.

The latest addition to Macmillan's Latin Classics is the "Agricola" of Tacitus, edited by Prof. D. R. Stuart. It is well adapted for use in college courses. Professor Stuart is versed in the necessary studies and editions of the "Agricola," and he is the first to utilize for the text the all-important manuscript recently discovered at Jesi. The notes, while touching sufficiently on incidental problems, are not fraught with learning useless to the sophomore. The translations are now and then a shade too colloquial, as the rendering of *mixti copiis et lætitia* by "pooling rations and merrymakings."

One rubs his eyes at seeing an edition of the "Famulus" of Terence (J. Sargeaunt and A. G. S. Raynor, Clarendon Press), and wonders if the Egyptian sands have yielded a new play of the "dimidiatus Menander" as well. Unfortunately, it is merely an expurgated "Eunuchus." The real play was performed at Westminster, throughout the eighteenth century and until 1854, when it was discreetly abandoned. Cardinal Newman prepared a revision with the title of "Pincerna," on which is based the present text by Dr. Gow. It was performed at Westminister in 1907, but we hope it will have no vogue in America. Expurgating Terence is like the task of which one of his slaves tells, washing a brick.

The Clarendon Press has issued Book iv of Thucydides, acceptably edited by T. R. Mills, with a brief introduction, which makes no mention of Cornford or Bury, by H. Stuart Jones. The text is taken from the plates of Mr. Jones's edition of the entire work of Thucydides in the Oxford Classical Series. The reason why the pages of these beautiful and serviceable texts are not numbered should by this time be apparent to excited German reviewers. The price of the book is 3s. 6d.; the notes may be procured separately for 2s.

The translation of the "Rhetoric" of Aristotle found among the papers of Sir Richard Jebb, and now edited with an introduction, supplementary notes, and index by Dr. John Edwin Sandys (Cambridge University Press; Putnams), provides the English reader with a version of that fundamental treatise upon which he may implicitly rely. We have here an interesting illustration of the firm foundations on which the elegant superstructure of Jebb's scholarship was erected. How many young teachers having occasion to lecture on the "Rhetoric" would think it necessary to write out a careful translation of the whole? The work was done in the years preceding the publication of the "Attic Orators," in 1876; and the results appear in the firm grasp of the subject exhibited there and in the masterly article on rhetoric in the "Encyclopædia Britannica." Dr. Sandys, who, thirty years ago was selected, on the recommendation of Jebb, to edit Cope's posthumously published commentary on the "Rhetoric," contributes an introduction based largely on the references to the subject in the "Attic Orators," and explains all literary allusions and variations of text in foot notes marked by his usual sound and copious learning.

HISTORY.

A second volume of "Readings in Modern European History," by Profs. James H. Robinson and Charles A. Beard (Ginn & Co.), covers the period from the Congress of Vienna to the present time, already dealt with in volume two of the "Development of Modern Europe," by the same authors. Naturally, political events are most emphasized, but we note a goodly number of selections illustrative of social and industrial life, and a final chapter on such current problems as the responsibilities of modern government, the warfare against poverty, and the progress and achievements of science.

Prof. James Q. Dealey's "Development of the State" (Silver, Burdett & Co.) should prove, in the hands of a discreet teacher, a serviceable outline for students who are well-grounded in history, and who can supply for themselves the historical illustrations which the extreme compression of the narrative necessarily omits. While Professor Dealey emphasizes the idea that the development of the state conforms to definite laws and principles, which are themselves largely determined by intellectual and economic conditions, he avoids the abstractions which commonly fill so large a place in works of political theory, and on controverted points contents himself, for the most part, with an impartial presentation of the opposing views. Of special interest is his discussion of the electorate as constituting, in a sense, a fourth department of government. Many of the foot-notes and chapter references are cast in an unfamiliar form, and some of them are slovenly.

Profs. James A. James of Northwestern University and Albert H. Sanford of the Stevens Point (Wis.) State Normal School have brought out jointly an "American History" for schools (Charles Scribner's Sons). The distinguishing features of the narrative are a fuller treatment of the later colonial period than has commonly been the case in recent manuals, a careful presentation of the causes of the Revolution, and emphasis upon the growth of the West and upon social and industrial development; while the influence of European happenings on the course of events in America is also pointed out. It is matter of surprise, however, that in a work which seeks to introduce the student to the more usable literature of the subject, the scheme of references appended to the several chapters, should not have been more consistently carried out. We take a single illustration: Why should the bibliography at the end of chapter x, on the causes of the Revolution, refer to the texts of the writ of assistance and the Stamp Act, and not to the texts of the Declaratory Act, the Townshend Acts, or the Massachusetts Circular Letter, all of which are discussed in the chapter and are equally within the grasp of the student? Again, why cite now one and now another collection of documents or source material, without intimation that the sources referred to are all contained in one of the works mentioned? With the present limited development of the school library, the citation of a number of source collections, without indication of the extent to which they duplicate each other, is a discouragement rather than an aid to the teacher. We cannot altogether praise, either, the mechanical make-up of the volume—a matter of consequence in a text-book. The page has a pretty solid appearance, due in part to the absence of paragraph headings; and the lack of distinguishing type in the reference lists is likely to be confusing to young readers. The illustrations are commonplace, and some of the maps too small to read easily without a glass. We note a few errors in the text: "habitans" for habitants (p. 115); "1661," instead of 1761, as the date of the application for writs of assistance in Boston (p. 143); "three" acts, instead of four, as comprising the Alien and Sedition legislation of 1798 (p. 235); and "$500," instead of $300, as the price of exemption under the Draft Act of 1863. On pages 67 and 83 MacDonald's "Select Charters" is cited as though it were a work of more than one volume, which it is not.

SCIENCE.

Messrs. Stone and Millis, having dedicated their excellent "Secondary Arithmetic" (Sanborn & Co.) to the exclusive uses of commerce and industry in terms of emphasis almost shrill, proceed at once to make amends by opening with a chapter devoted to a critico-historical account of notational systems and a philosophical comparison of the decimal base with other bases.

The latest volume of "The Appleton

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Arithmetics" (D. Appleton & Co.), by Professors Young and Jackson, is designed for the fifth, sixth, seventh, and eighth grades. It is quite up to date in the character and arrangement of its subject-matter. Its usableness in the classroom is in a measure qualified by a prolixity due to extensive employment of the inductive method, a liberal use of pictorial illustration, and an attempt to preserve the cultural value of the study while fully recognizing the modern conception of secondary arithmetic as a practical art.

Professor Lester's "The Integrals of Mechanics" (Ginn & Co.), is an attempt to mediate between a first course in the integral calculus and a first course in mechanics. If the student could be provided with sufficient time and incentive to read this book prior to entering upon mechanics—and there is the rub—the teacher of mechanics would be thereby relieved from the present annoying necessity of pausing to drill his classes in processes with which, strictly speaking, the subject presupposes familiarity.

The "Trigonometry" (Holt & Co.), by Professor Hall and Mr. Frink, aims to meet the increasing demand of mathematicians and engineers for a treatment of the science better suited to the needs of technological students. The aim is pursued by the introduction of numerous exercises, including many applications to problems of physics and engineering, and by thoroughly treating the arithmetic solution of triangles before entering upon the science proper, namely, the theory of the general trigonometric functions.

"Light and Sound," by W. S. Franklin and Barry MacNutt (Macmillan), is the third volume of the authors' college texts on physics. The statement is made in the preface that America is comparatively lacking in productive scholarship, and the authors believe that, in writing this series of elementary texts, "they are doing as much for the ultimate development of science in America as any of our research specialists." This may be so, but we are reluctant to grant it. A critical comparison of these texts with the best, say of England, shows them to be at least as inferior as is our productive scholarship. The style is inelegant and the construction weak, nor does the treatment of the subject show any peculiar excellence. Mathematics has been almost eliminated, and the difficulties of the science so emasculated that an English student would feel that he was being fed on pap. We certainly hope, for the sake of American scholarship, that this series of texts will not be widely introduced into our colleges.

A rather useful set of definitions, formulæ, and problems for the electrician will be found in T. O'Conor Sloane's "Elementary Electrical Calculations" (Van Nostrand & Co.). The writer attempts to cover too much ground, as he not only gives the ordinary calculations, but also the principles of the subject. He should limit himself either to the needs of the beginner or else supply a dictionary of reference for the more advanced student. The book would be benefited by careful revision, and especially by rewriting the parts on potential, thermo-electricity, and electro-chemistry. In make-up it is not satisfactory, as the binding cracks ominously, whereas a book full of problems should be strongly bound and should open flat.

It is interesting to observe that Prof. Charles Baskerville of the College of the City of New York makes no attempt, in his "General Organic Chemistry" (D. C. Heath & Co.), to preserve a formal logical development of the subject, either inductive or deductive. He simply takes up the topics in the order that seems to him most convenient, and there is no affectation of keeping the student in ignorance of anything he needs because the time has not yet come for him to have it. Molecules, atoms, electrons, symbols, and combining weights come into play in the course of the first two chapters without any flourish of trumpets. Nitrogen and ammonia are taken up after the alkali metals, and the nitrogen oxides do not appear until after most of the other metals and their salts are disposed of. This is an unconventional arrangement, but otherwise no serious objection can be brought against it, for any order is arbitrary, and has its embarrassments. This chemistry is much less bulky than most college text-books, still, if the student gets it all, he will know more than most of them. There are no cuts of any kind. It is true that many of the illustrations in the chemistries now on the market are superfluous or poorly drawn, but that is no reason for leaving them out altogether, for they are occasionally needed. Lantern-slides, briefly seen, cannot take their place. Most teachers, too, will want more exercises than are here given. On the whole, however, this is a useful book, practical, modern, and reliable.

We could not wish a more wisely balanced, better adapted introduction than Edwin A. Kirkpatrick's "Genetic Psychology" (Macmillan). Mr. Kirkpatrick begins with the lowest forms of organic life. He describes the parallel development of physiological build and mental capacity through each of the levels from amoeba to man. The classification and interpretation of instincts are doubtless somewhat more scholastic in their sharp distinctions than the facts allow; as, for instance, when Mr. Kirkpatrick defines the racial (parental) instinct as "a mode of behavior of no advantage to the individual." But in all such instances a contrast of great pedagogical value is secured without doing serious violence to truth. It is strange that Mr. Kirkpatrick, dwelling on the specialized instincts, should give less than a page to the æsthetic group; he is fully alive to its uniqueness as a curious, often dangerous, hypertrophy, but points out not a single illustration of its nature. The second half of the volume, dealing with the functions of human consciousness, takes toward these an attitude of complete philosophical indifference, which few who dip into biology have the self-control to assume. Thanks to this abstinence, Mr. Kirkpatrick's work is free from thin speculation; and perhaps it is for this same reason that he is always direct, matter-of-fact, and singularly prodigal with apt illustrations. A list of references for collateral reading follows each chapter.

The growth of psychology in recent years is reflected in Prof. E. B. Titchener's "A Text-Book of Psychology," the first volume of which the Macmillan Company has just published. This work is a rewriting, and in no sense a mere revision, of the author's thirteen-year-old "Outline of Psychology." From the latter little more has been taken over than the Wundtian point of view, straightforward exposition, and refreshing sanity on open questions. Every topic has been dealt with anew, and many paragraphs interpolated on aspects lately brought into the foreground. Part I, the first of two volumes, covers, besides a defence of the experimental method, only three subjects: sensation, affection, and attention. If any criticism is to be lodged against the increased size, it is that Professor Titchener has served affection and attention with short measure. Not only does he devote an unusual length to sensation, he says four times as much about it as about either of these other mental activities. The fifty-seven paragraphs on various sensation qualities are all the more extensive because, unlike corresponding passages in most other similar works, they eschew nervous physiology altogether. Particularly full is the treatment of the minor sensations; surely not too full in the case of the cutaneous and the kinæsthetic, but debatably so in that of the abdominal, alimentary, circulatory, respiratory, and genital. On the other hand, synæsthesia is rather curtly dismissed, and with it the question of imagery, which raises many fundamental issues clearly and attractively. One may agree with the writer as to the necessity of beginning over again with attention, and starting at the problem of sensory clearness; no less, too, may one assent to his prefatory remark that a discussion of the physiological theories of attention with beginners is wasted time: nevertheless, the tremendous importance of this whole subject on all the rest of psychology (not to mention Pragmatism, Humanism, and Bergsonism) would justify the marshalling of more facts than Professor Titchener has ventured. But if proportions are not altogether to taste, the substance of the book is. The author has sifted out from his book the merely amusing or weird aspects of mental life on which the psychological hack-writer feeds. He successfully presents psychology as a serious science full of hard work and rich in promise of useful achievements.

FLETCHER'S INTRODUCTORY HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

An Introductory History of England: From the earliest times till the year 1815. By C. R. L. Fletcher, M. A., formerly Fellow of All Souls and Magdalen Colleges, Oxford. In four volumes. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50 net, per volume.

Mr. Fletcher's work, avowedly compiled for boys and young men, is now completed. For its purpose, the book has extraordinary merits, which are marred by but one fault: Mr. Fletcher is an historian rather than a critic. In common with Macaulay, he lacks something of the judicial faculty; complex natures perplex him. He lives so completely in the times of which he writes, he connects them—in this, too, resembling the school of Macaulay—so closely with the feeling of the century in which he, in fact, lives, that he cannot attain to the ideal impartiality prac-

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tised almost without effort by such a writer as Gardiner. We note this defect for two reasons: We wish to deal quite fairly with a writer who has high claims to the admiration of all readers, and a special right to the gratitude of the young, for whom he has provided animated and excellent instruction. We know further that Mr. Fletcher's one fault will attract exaggerated attention among readers who turn immediately to his chapter on the Loss of America. Much that he says is true, but it is no more the whole truth about the conflict between England and her Colonies than are the statements of writers, of whom many are to be found on both sides the Atlantic, who imagine that the whole blame for a contest caused to a great extent by the nature of things may be attributed to the stupidity of George III and the weakness of Lord North. Happily, there is no need for dwelling on the details of a civil war which every man of English descent must now regret. The day has come when in London, as at Washington, the English people can be regarded as a whole. Writers, however, of merit must be judged, not by any quality which they may happen to lack, but by the gifts to which they owe their eminence. Our author's history of England proves his possession of more than one quality which fits him to be the chosen educator of youth.

The essential characteristic of his book is that it is alive—a very different thing, by the way, from being lively. Some of the statements it contains may excite discussion, but there is hardly a line which does not arouse interest. In no part of Mr. Fletcher's work is this quality of interestingness more visible than in his chapter on India. We have all of us admired rightly the boldness of Clive in fighting a huge Indian army of well-nigh twenty times the number of the small force, including only 700 British soldiers, at his disposal. We have many of us felt the victory of Plassey, as commonly described, to be little short of miraculous. Mr. Fletcher, however, gives us Orme's startling account of the military art as understood by Indian princes:

> Orme (he writes) had seen it in working, or rather in failure to work; "the Infantry a multitude of people assembled together without regard to rank and file, some with swords and targets, some with matchlocks of most uncertain fire, some with lances too long or too weak to be of any service." The cavalry is better, but "as each man provides his own horse, it is the interest of the rider to fight as little as possible, for if the horse is killed the owner is ruined. When a chief is killed his followers usually run away at once." As for the guns, we learn elsewhere that if they were fired once in half an hour it was reckoned a feat.

He thus reduces an incomprehensible miracle to the limits of historical fact. But he thereby takes nothing from the interest or glory of Clive's achievement; he rather proves that courage was with Clive, as with other great commanders, grounded on prudence. The English leader triumphed, like a great general before him, *ausus vana contemnere.*

Take, again, Mr. Fletcher's accounts of the Battle of Waterloo. They give us, in the first place, in plain and simple language, the main and essential facts of a conflict which distinctly brought to a close the era of Napoleonic ambition, and, as we now know, has already established well-nigh a hundred years of uninterrupted peace between France and England. But our author here forces the details of a most important transaction upon the attention of youthful readers by falling back with great advantage upon that kind of historical but imaginative narrative of which he has made such admirable use in describing some of the earlier phases of English history. He reintroduces us, we fear for the last time, to the inhabitants of Tubney Manor House, and gives us a picture of the fight at Waterloo as it presented itself to an English officer, and to a private by whom he was followed. The letters, which do not profess to be historical, are yet, we may be sure, grounded on a minute knowledge of facts. They certainly convey an intensely vivid impression, not only of actual events, but of the sentiment of the time in which the imaginary letters are dated.

Mr. Fletcher, in the next place, possesses an historical eye. He seizes at once the striking characteristics of eras and of men. Nothing can be more effective than his account of the true results of the Restoration. They may all be summed up in two statements: The Restoration brought back not only the monarchy, but the Parliament; the Restoration opens the annals of modern England. But these statements, though true, would convey little to a schoolboy. Our author develops and illustrates them so that an intelligent reader may for the first time understand, and will assuredly never forget, the true relation of the age of Charles II to the eighteenth century. One is, indeed, tempted to say that the eighteenth century in spirit began in 1660, and did not, in England at least, end till 1830. This hundred and seventy years is to a great extent governed by one and the same idea. With the fall of the Commonwealth, England passed away from the rule of theology to the reign of common sense.

Mr. Fletcher's personal preferences prevent him from being an absolutely safe guide on questions of character. Still, he hits off the noteworthy traits of great men with singular felicity. We have all, for instance, heard of Marlborough's transcendent military genius. Many readers are acquainted with his acts of treachery and treason, which show that he had yielded, like many other leading Englishmen, to the temptations of a revolutionary period, and, as has been well said, "apparently regarded a treasonable action as not less admissible than a stratagem in war." But few students have probably realized the love for their commander felt by Marlborough's soldiers, or the Duke's care for his troops which begot this loyal affection. This is an aspect of Marlborough's army and of his character to which Mr. Fletcher gives deserved prominence. Consider further our author's summing up of Nelson's character:

> Nelson was the very embodiment and vital force of the Sea Power of Great Britain. His private character was clouded by one insane infatuation for a worthless woman, but it was characteristic of him that he invested that woman with the halo of a saint. In everything but this no life more devoted to the performance of duty was ever lived.

Surely, to any one who accepts, as in the long run we are convinced impartial judges will do, Mahan's exculpation of his hero from the one charge of bad faith, Mr. Fletcher's words must seem an admirable characterization of "the greatest seaman since the world began." It puts the most lovable as well as the most original of England's captains in exactly the light in which one would wish him to be regarded by the generous and the young. His infatuation need not be concealed, but the heroic side of his nature and career should never be kept out of sight.

The "Introductory History of England" is written, as we have said, for boys. The more the book is studied the more clearly a judicious critic will perceive how admirably suited it is for the young. Its author loves the contemplation of striking events and striking characters. He can, indeed, make, and often does make, weighty reflections; in a most interesting chapter, for instance, entitled "Men, Machines, Morals, and Manners," he not only directs attention to illustrations of the so-called industrial revolution of the eighteenth century, but also suggests, what is often forgotten, that in the absence of minute information, and, above all, of trustworthy statistics, many of the bold assertions made about a social change, of which every one can perceive the general character, rest on imperfect knowledge, and are themselves therefore of dubious truth. But his true interest lies in actions and in persons. He is more at home in personalization—if the word may be allowed—than in generalization; and this is exactly as it should be with a writer who addresses himself to Mr. Fletcher's audience. Nor let any one suppose that to arouse the enthusiasm or the interest of youth is nothing more than the providing of a superior kind of amusement. As a matter of

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fact, it is biographical history rather than scientific history which has influenced the opinions, the thoughts, the feelings, and therefore, in the long run, the conduct of the young. It would be idle to attribute to Plutarch anything like the insight into the laws of human nature and their effect on the progress of mankind, which any thoughtful reader may without difficulty discover in the pages of Thucydides. But Plutarch's Lives, just because they do not deal with the laws either of human nature or of history, but narrate the actions of celebrated men, have once and again exerted over the imagination and the conduct of the young an influence denied to the earliest and to the latest, whoever he may be, of scientific historians.

CURRENT FICTION.

Anne of Avonlea. By L. M. Montgomery. Boston: L. C. Page & Co.

Readers of "Anne of Green Gables" do not need to be told that the story of the next few years of Anne's life is a story of crystal clearness, of tenderness, humor, and fancy. If the fancy is sometimes exaggerated, it is not in the least morbid, but walks always in lock-step between fun and common sense. To an Anne who has reached the age of discretion and become a teacher in her old school at Avonlea, it is naturally not permitted to be so consistently impossible and so hilarously freakish as in her tender years; nor may she dream quite so recklessly. Accordingly the author, with happy respect to her own forte, provides an orphan boy who is all pranks and a half-orphan boy who is all aerial dreams, and the two supply what was earlier found in Anne.

Anne herself, meanwhile, has by no means wholly graduated from either her imaginings or her talent for predicament. When she is found telling the irrepressible Davy that it is "wrong for little boys to use slang," it seems that Anne must have been changed at rebirth. But again, there are reassuring scenes of catastrophe in respect to mistaken potions which link her joyously with the past. Interest in sentimental adventure naturally waxes, but it does not even yet carry the drama beyond the bounds of youth. As before, the atmosphere of Prince Edward Island prettily surrounds the story.

Dromina. By John Ayscough. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Mr. Ayscough appears to have yielded to an impulse to sit down and tell sad stories of the lives of kings. First, there is The McMorogh, who was, or thought he was, a King of Ireland, tracing his ancestry back through Irish kings to Charlemagne and Holy Roman emperors, with cardinals and popes for collaterals. Then there is the son of Louis XVI, who, it seems, was hidden from view among gypsies and presently reappeared in Ireland in a camp close to The McMorogh's Castle, Dromina. There is an Irish lady, widow of a French vicomte, who, having made a religion of Louis XVI and Marie Antoinette, now attaches herself to the service of the Dauphin. There is a Spanish gypsy king whose daughter is in contemplation as a wife for the Dauphin, the match diverting itself for good and pretty reasons, while the son of Marie Antoinette marries The McMorogh's daughter. There is a fine lady, lugged into the pages, but quite out of the story, who, it is darkly hinted, has been on intimate terms with Georgian royalty. Following the adventures of this uncrowned group comes the life history of one of the succeeding generation, a grandson of The McMorogh, who takes it into his head to proclaim himself Emperor of Hispaniola, where he has a short and tragic career.

The air of solemn consecration attaching to all these blighted majesties seems almost incompatible with a sense of humor. But there are conversations disclosing a charming Celtic grace and vivacity which make one think how pleasant and witty a book this might become by editing out the royalties. The author has the gift of drawing very winning characters, and allows it such free play that, while one begins by inquiring just why the book was written, one ends by asking why it should ever stop. Generations yet unborn, French, Spanish, Irish, gypsy, might well have gone on laying claim to thrones, Eastern and Western, and dying in martyrdom.

The grateful dedication of the volume to George Meredith, "by his generous permission," is not hard to explain on the common ground of Celtic bias. Merely as a piece of construction, the book might well have been dedicated to Mrs. Nickleby. But it is in essence a fine and high-minded work.

Homespun. By Lottie Blair Parker. New York: Henry Holt & Co.

The author of those popular plays, "'Way Down East" and "Under Southern Skies," has not unnaturally undertaken a study of New England *genre* in the form of fiction. As a successful playwright she could hardly be expected to interpret her subject in the light of the latest observation. The most one could look for would be a respectable rehandling of the familiar types and situations. But the current novel has in some respects moved ahead of the current play. After Miss Wilkins, Miss Jewett, and Miss Brown, it behooves the delineator of New England life to go softly upon his way. "Homespun" makes a rather coarse and sketchy use of the well-worn materials. Its merits and defects are those of Mrs. Stowe's "Oldtown Folks," which was, after all, no more than an early experiment. Here are the village post office and grocery; the sewing society, the surprise party, and the tavern dance; the endless gossip, and the everlasting dialect. Here also are divers useful if familiar elements of melodrama: the innocent village maiden, the virtuous and ambitious village youth, the college-bred sot and villain, the hapless daughter of the publican—you see at once in what species of entanglements these persons are presently to be involved, and (roughly) by what means they are to be extricated. A family quarrel over a strip of land is important to the staging and general action of the piece. We may fancy a canvas and pasteboard "Lilac Lane" as the chief scene of the play which will no doubt be wrought out of the story. Its present dress is that of the utmost literary ingenuousness. Enough to say that of all the inhabitants of "Columbia Corners," few but the hero and the heroine (who appear to have had no special advantages) are permitted the use of respectable English. The speech of the rest is represented by an ingenious system of elision and misspellings: "The' ain't nothin' helps a doctor along like bein' in s'ciety." Even that local magnate and son of Belial, Judge Witherspoon ("Jedge Withersp'n"), speaks uniformly after the manner of Hosea Biglow, or thereabouts. In himself the judge is an interesting person, dialect or no; altogether the most real figure in a story which, with all its crudeness, has its engaging features.

The Cuckoo's Nest. By Martha Gilbert Dickinson Bianchi. New York: Duffield & Co.

A novel the action of which takes place chiefly at Monte Carlo offers well in this hour of cosmopolitan fiction. England, America, France, Poland, and Germany share the honors in providing the principal persons of the tale. Unfortunately, none of these persons are intrinsically important; such interest as they have belongs to them as types. The American abroad, the gambler of noble birth, the courtesan, the brilliant and amorous amateur of the violin, the rude but sportsmanlike Englishwoman with a title, the all-conquering dragoon—these are the not unfamiliar human materials out of which the Countess Bianchi has constructed her plot. Nor is it surprising that we should find the sex-relation, whether in or out of marriage, the dominant theme. The noble French gambler has married an American for love, and we find them, after some years of marriage, still passionately devoted to each other. The wife has become virtually a Frenchwoman, and the feeling between her and her husband-lover is rather that of *l'amour*

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than of connubial love as it is understood among English-speaking peoples. Paul breaks the bank at Monte Carlo, as must have been expected, and is subsequently driven to suicide by Vera's jealousy of his former mistress, Hélène. Several admirers stand ready to console her, but we leave her in a somewhat theatrical attitude of erotic grief, vowing eternal fidelity to the spiritual presence (which she images in terms of the flesh) of her dead husband. There are passages of somewhat too detailed description for the taste of Anglo-Saxondom; but the moral of the story is wholesome: that "the way to perfection lies through a series of disgusts." The variety of Continental society here portrayed is eminently qualified to hasten the seeker on his way.

THE KANTIAN PHILOSOPHY.

Kant's Theory of Knowledge. By H. A. Prichard, Fellow of Trinity College, Oxford. New York: Henry Frowde. $2.15.

Fifteen years ago, the great majority of our academic philosophers, in England and America, were wont, with whatever diversities of interpretation, to profess and call themselves idealists. The pendulum of dialectic now, as so often before, is moving to its other limit of oscillation; most of our rising young metaphysicians, as well as some eminent older ones, are making haste to number themselves among the realists; and idealism with them ranks as a passed mode—though by no means as an outworn theme. The "new realism" is second only to Pragmatism in providing the philosophical periodicals with matter. Unfortunately, the protagonists of this doctrine have been more prolific in controversial contributions to technical journals than in substantial books; so that the general public has hardly been informed of this tendency of speculative opinion. Mr. Prichard's volume is, therefore, more of a rarity as a vigorous manifesto in favor of this new realism than as an addition to that multitude, which no librarian can number, of books about Kant's philosophy. The desire to refute the idealism of the author of the "Refutation of Idealism" was plainly the ruling preoccupation of the writer's mind; it has led him to limit his analysis and criticism—as the title does not intimate—to the first two parts of the "Kritik der reinen Vernunft"—the "Transcendental Æsthetic" and the "Analytic." Even such important matters as the examination of rational theology and the antinomies are omitted, except for a superficial and too dogmatic note upon the first antinomy.

Yet, though Mr. Prichard is evidently more interested in realism than in Kant, his book, within the limits chosen, has some singular merits, even as a commentary on the "Kritik"; and in certain ways it should be more serviceable to students of that obscure classic than any existing English writing. It is impossible to conceive of a German's writing such a book on the subject. Mr. Prichard does not so much as mention Kant's personality and historic relations; he omits, without loss, a surprisingly large portion of the Kantian technical terminology; he attempts no general appreciation of the system; but he disarticulates it with an inexorable scalpel, and drags the dark, involved, hypertrophied mass into the light—often the withering light—of a sort of Humian lucidity. The "Kritik" is simply examined to see if it is what it purports to be, a piece of coherent and cogent connected reasoning. Mr. Prichard goes patiently over each point, seeking to determine by a careful scrutiny of the text what, in plain language, Kant may really be understood to mean, and then testing unsparingly the logic of that meaning; crying *distinguo* upon this argument, and *non patet* upon that, with the greatest possible persistency, patience, and cold blood.

Such a frankly non-historical and purely analytic method has its obvious inadequacies; but it has important advantages. For—in spite of the mass of Kant philology—a searching analytic treatment of Kant's argumentation, in a logically competent manner, has been too little in evidence in the Kant books, especially those available in English; the easy-going way in which Kant's actual arguments are ignored, in the interest of a "constructive" exposition, in some well-known writings on that philosopher, is astonishing. In dealing with Kant at close quarters, yet without involution or needless technicality, and in holding that chartered libertine among reasoners fast to the canons of ordinary logic, Mr. Prichard has done good service to Kant study and to philosophy; and his book is, into the bargain, worth reading merely as an example of tenacity and vigor in sequential reasoning.

This may be said without implying that the author's own arguments for realism are entirely unimpeachable. That, however, is a long story, and much ink is certain to be spilt from philosophic fountain-pens before it is all told. It is fair to observe, however, that the "new realism" is in part, though only in part, actually new; it is something more than a mere harking back to an old position. Though reflection, in its secular movement, often seems to swing back and forth from one end of its arc to the other, it does not, after all, do so without modification and enrichment from each of its oscillations.

The Rockies of Canada. By Walter Dwight Wilcox. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $5 net.

It is not the least tribute to the charm of the Canadian Rockies, from the point of view of the hunter, the mountain-climber, the naturalist, or the mere lover of wild scenery, that Mr. Wilcox has found such a wealth of new material to crowd into each succeeding edition of his book as to make it virtually a new work. This is particularly noticeable if we compare one of the earlier editions, say that of 1897, published under the title "Camping in the Canadian Rockies," with the present book. In 1897 the exploration of the splendid peaks and beautiful valleys of this part of the Rocky Mountains was still in its infancy, and was confined to a comparatively small area within easy reach of the railway. Since then under the leadership of such famous mountain-climbers as Whymper, Outram, Collie, Stutfield, Woolley, Eggers, and Wilcox, each year has seen the exploration of new fields, north and south of the railway, until to-day a region more extensive than the Alps is opened to those less ambitious travellers who are content to follow in the footsteps of the pioneers. With all this, however, the explored area is trifling compared to what still remains to be discovered; and for many years to come those who have the necessary time and energy to spare may enjoy the unique charm of scaling peaks never before trod, and in many cases never even seen, by other mortals.

Apart from their interest to the mountain-climber, the Canadian Rockies offer handsome inducements to the hunter and fisherman. The former will find sport worthy of his skill in hunting the big-horn or the Rocky Mountain goat, among almost inaccessible peaks; and the latter may count on a mess of trout from almost any of the little lakes that lie like jewels in the heart of every valley. In some of these lakes the trout reach an extraordinary size. Mr. Wilcox mentions one caught in Lake Minnewanka in 1896, that tipped the scales at thirty-three pounds, but all previous records were eclipsed in 1899, when Dr. Seward Webb captured a fish weighing forty-seven pounds! To the naturalist, the exploration of these mountains and valleys offers an ample reward. From the bottom of the valleys to the snow-line spruce, pine, and larch may be studied in their own peculiar environment; and even the highest valleys harbor some little rodents, such as the pica or tailless hare, which Mr. Wilcox calls the "seven-thousand-foot rat," because it invariably appears at this altitude.

All this, and much more, one finds in Mr. Wilcox's text, but in the end one turns to the illustrations as in many respects the best part of the book. There are forty of these, and one does not need

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to read of the endless patience and skill exercised upon each to know that it is almost perfect of its kind. For some of these pictures Mr. Wilcox waited days and weeks, sometimes even years, for the fleeting moment of perfect atmospheric conditions. In them one gets the clearest impression of the great and varied charm of this mountain paradise, from the awe-inspiring grandeur of Mount Assiniboine and the vast ruin of Pinnacle Mountain, to the gentle beauty of Lake Louise and the wonderful landscape of Paradise Valley.

Minnesota, the North Star State. By William Watts Folwell. (American Commonwealths.) Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. $1.25 net.

Though the American Commonwealth Series has not yet completed its survey of the States on the eastern seaboard, it is already reaching out toward the younger States of the West whose membership in the Union is of comparatively recent date. Minnesota was admitted as a State in 1858, and its history covers a period of but sixty years. Originally under French dominion and occupied at varying times by French explorers and traders, it received during the two hundred years before 1762 no impress of institution, monument, or tradition that has left any trace affecting the life of the commonwealth. Bisected by the line which the Treaty of Paris drew in 1763, it had no territorial integrity until in 1803 it came entirely under English control. Even then the region attracted attention only because it contained the sources of the Mississippi, and not until 1819 did it arouse the concern of the United States government sufficiently to become the seat of a military post, a station not actually occupied until 1822. Twenty-seven years later the Territory of Minnesota was organized, but the events of those years are too slightly related to the subsequent history to be deserving of much recognition in the story of the State's development. For nearly nine years Minnesota remained a Territory, and it was only during this period that the land took on any regional unity.

Even after Minnesota became a State, its history is singularly wanting in events which have played any significant part in the larger history of the nation. Indian wars, so far as they led to conquest and the occupation of territory, are important, and the extension of railway lines and the promotion of educational institutions are essential factors in the opening of the Northwest, but the political struggles and incidents which occupy much space in this book are not constitutionally instructive except as they illustrate the political organization of the frontier. Minnesota has contributed but few men of national repute: Professor Winchell, Ignatius Donnelly, Secretary Windom, Senator Davis, and Govs. Pillsbury and Johnson very nearly complete the list. The share which the State had in the civil war is a noteworthy and creditable witness to the loyalty and bravery of its citizens, and the chapter devoted to this subject is the most readable in the book. The remainder of Professor Folwell's narrative is filled in with tales of grasshoppers, banks, flour mills, missionary work, corporation intrigues, and political jobbery. It is at best but a disconnected chronicle, made somewhat less interesting than might have been the case by the author's failure to discover any organic unity in the State's progress and by his inability to clothe his facts in attractive and graceful style.

Oxford Lectures on Poetry. By A. C. Bradley. New York: The Macmillan Co. $3.

Dr. Bradley so modestly deprecates comparison with his predecessors in the chair of poetry, he is so deferential in taking exception, so apologetic whenever he is obscure or dogmatic, that one lays the book down at the end with a feeling that its author has already sufficiently performed the function of criticism. In the brief retrospect at the close of the volume he touches upon and justifies his special quality as a lecturer upon poetry—a certain bent toward philosophizing, a friendliness toward abstract ideas. This quality gives him as an expositor of Shelley's theory of poetry or Wordsworth's mysticism and paradoxes a distinct advantage over Matthew Arnold, for instance, to whom he is compensatingly inferior in pure poetical tact, in phrase-making, and in the judicial distinction of poetical values. As compared with Mr. Courthope, on the other hand, he appears quite indifferent to that modern type of literary scholarship which concerns itself almost exclusively with origins and influences. He occupies himself immediately with the poetic experience, with the study of the poet's mind through his work, and with the theory of poetry.

In his initial lecture, "Poetry for Poetry's Sake," he comes as near as possible to disposing forever of the interminable quarrel between the Philistine and the artist, the one holding that the subject is everything, the other, that the form is everything. The opposite of the form, Dr. Bradley contends, is not the subject, but the substance, of a poem, and in poetical experience form and substance are one and indivisible. In his little dissertation on "The Sublime" he is less suggestive and less conclusive. Taking issue with Burke, he maintains that terror is not an ingredient in *all* our perceptions of the sublime, instancing a rainbow, a valiant sparrow described by Turgénieff, etc. Here in the misty subjective cloudland of æsthetics one may maintain about what one pleases. We do not feel, perhaps, the sublimity of the sparrow or of the rainbow; we do feel, perhaps, the element of a certain æsthetic terror mingled, in every case, in the rapture of the sublime; and, if we do, we have at least Burke and De Quincey on our side. But all such discussion is at its best rather interesting than conclusive, and one thinks with relief of Pater's advice to the æsthetic critic not to attempt to define beauty, but to live ever in its visible presence. Of the general essays, that on "Hegel's Theory of Tragedy" is the most penetrating, the most perspicuous, and the most instructive. And yet even here, in the presence of the "ethical substance" absolute and its "particular powers," we feel irritated and a little baffled by outworn modes of thought. We could wish that the discussion had been translated into terms of the scientific age for the sake of readers to whom the ideal world is somewhat lacking in solidity.

In dealing with the letters of Keats, with Shelley's view of poetry, with Wordsworth, and with Shakespeare, Dr. Bradley is on less disputable ground. He writes as a student and catholic lover of poetry for poetry's sake. Though one may differ from him in matters of detail, one is grateful to him for much stimulating interpretation, and one is kindled by the eloquent yet chastened ardor of his appreciation. His Shakespearian criticism is particularly robust and wholesome; no one has written with more breadth and illumination of Falstaff or with more wisdom and splendor of Antony and Cleopatra. He has no new gospel for the young generation of poets—he believes they must find that for themselves. But he is old-fashioned enough to put some faith in the poetic madness, in the validity of the poetic vision, and in reading poetry to receive some indefinable intimations of a world unknown to sense perceptions. Such professors of poetry are becoming rare

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Benjamin Constant: Der Roman eines Lebens. By Josef Ettlinger. Berlin: Egon Fleischel & Co.

That no complete and trustworthy biography of Benjamin Constant has been hitherto attempted is in a great measure due to the inaccessibility of documents jealously guarded by the heirs of those with whom Constant was closely associated, and who were responsible for the suppression of parts of the *Journal intime*, and for the destruction of many letters. Contemporaries who might have had the courage to undertake a biography distinctly deviating from the biased portrait which Sainte-Beuve had drawn, were hampered by the lack of authentic knowledge. As with other men whose portrait has come to posterity distorted by personal or par-

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tisan prejudice, a certain period had to elapse before the character of Constant could be seen in the right perspective. Now, the first biography written from the point of view of a later and juster generation is the work of a German scholar whose translation of "Adolphe" some years ago gave evidence of sympathy with his subject. Dr. Ettlinger's work was in press when Prof. Georges Rudler's work, "La Jeunesse de Benjamin Constant," appeared, covering the life of Constant up to the year 1794, when he made the acquaintance of Mme. de Staël. While both authors base the history of his early development upon hitherto unpublished documents, the book of the German biographer traces it through the critical and important period of his relations with Mme. de Staël to his death in the eventful year 1830.

Dr. Ettlinger emphasizes the German influences that entered into the complex individuality of the man who was called the first cosmopolite in French letters, but he hardly overrates them. Constant's *Fliegeljahre* at the university of Erlangen, his career at the court of Brunswick, his marriage to Wilhelmine von Cramm, his tour of Germany with Mme. de Staël, his marriage with his second wife, Charlotte von Mahrenholtz du Tertre, and the years spent in Göttingen after his rupture with Mme. de Staël, must have left a deep impression. They also brought him into close association with German contemporaries, whose testimony did him more justice than that of his compatriots of the same period, who, by their political creed, were either his fervent adherents or violent opponents. Family documents in the possession of Charlotte's grandson, Baron von Mahrenholtz, and the unpublished letters of Constant to Ludwig Ferdinand Huber, and his wife Thérèse, the daughter of the philologist Heyne and divorced wife of Georg Forster (now the property of Dr. Ludwig Geiger of Berlin), are among the sources that may have strengthened the author's sympathetic attitude towards his subject.

The unfortunate circumstances of Constant's youth were largely responsible for the extraordinary precocity and vanity of the boy. The mother had died at his birth and the father was temperamentally unequal to the task of bringing up the high-strung child. The lack of a home in the true sense of the word made the youth appreciative of the womanly—if not motherly—solicitude of Mme. de Charrière, at whose house in Colombier he was nursed through an illness of several months before he went to Brunswick. Dr. Ettlinger offers no specious apology for Constant and the extraordinary woman whose unselfish devotion to him was not disturbed by his marriage. He does not seem to think that either Constant's family or Sainte-Beuve had reason to be scandalized by the friendship which terminated only when Mme. de Staël appeared upon the scene, and at once became the power of his more mature life as Mme. de Charrière had been of his youth. From that time, the sphere of Constant's activities widened perceptibly. He was drawn into the whirlpool of political life, and the treatise written with her coöperation, "Sur la Force du gouvernement actuel de la France et de la necessité de s'y rallier," roused the antagonism of both Royalists and Jacobins. His direct political work began with his election to the Tribunate in December, 1799, and with few interruptions continued to his death. Apparently inconsistent, it was throughout determined by his adherence to the principles of representative and constitutional government. It was easy to brand Constant a renegade his return from Elba, Bonaparte persuaded his former opponent to become his counsellor. But as the choice was prompted by expediency, so the acceptance was a wise move in the interest of France, which needed at that time men capable of undertaking the task of constitutional reorganization, instead of spending their energies in unfruitful opposition. In a period of rapidly alternating governments and policies Constant showed, according to Dr. Ettlinger, soundness of judgment and firmness of attitude.

His literary work, too, gives evidence of steadfastness of purpose. It was an act of immaturity, no doubt, to conceive at the age of eighteen the plan of a history of the evolution of religion. But Constant returned to the project at various periods of his life, and read the proofs of the fifth and last volume on the morning of his death. Another significant trait of his character is emphasized in the chapter devoted to the autobiographical novel "Adolphe," in the heroine of which the biographer recognizes a Mme. Lindsay, though many incidents of the story are borrowed from his experiences with Mme. de Charrière, Julie Talma, Mme. Trevor, and the main plot is founded upon his relations with Mme. de Staël. Dr. Ettlinger points to the difference between this frank and unflattered self-portrayal and Strindberg's venomous and vindictive "Beichte eines Toren," or the *médisance* of "Elle et lui."

The book justly bears the sub-title "Roman eines Lebens." For although based upon thorough documentary research, it avoids the dry-as-dust manner of the conventional biographer and is as much a piece of psychological interpretation as a record of a most unusual life. The bibliography seems complete and among the illustrations are some that have not before been published.

Social Life at Rome in the Age of Cicero. By W. Warde Fowler. New York: The Macmillan Co. $2.25 net.

Dr. Fowler has attempted a difficult and somewhat novel task, and has admirably succeeded. Following in a way the plan of Dill's "Roman Society from Nero to Marcus Aurelius," he sketches in its various aspects the life that Cicero knew. It is impossible to restrict the treatment absolutely to the times of Cicero; the wealth of material for the following periods—for instance, on the order of the Roman day—tempts Mr. Fowler now and then out of his restricted field, but mainly for the purpose of contrast, and never in such wise as to distort his picture as a whole. Beginning with a brief tour of the city and following therein the order in which Virgil makes Æneas inspect the landmarks of primitive Rome, he treats in successive chapters of the lower population, the men of business, marriage, education, slaves, the house of the rich man, the daily life of the well-to-do, holidays and amusements, religion. Even this outline suggests that the book is not a manual of antiquities of the ordinary sort. The reader who would know the ingredients of the Roman wedding-cake will be disappointed. He will find instead a well-written and suggestive essay on matrimonial conditions in the times of Cicero; it includes a translation, the first in English, of the "Laudatio Turiæ," a record of marital devotion that one might imagine impossible in a Pagan age. This chapter is typical of the book.

The reader will doubtless find most novel the chapter on the Roman business man. Ancient Rome seems modern enough when we learn that Cicero was a corporation-lawyer (acting in behalf of the *socii scripturæ* in Bithynia), drew checks (*perscriptiones*), and took out letters of credit (*permutationes*). High finance, too, was not unknown, taking the form of enormous borrowings on one side, and speculation on the other, as to the value of that blessed security, the future appointment of the debtor as governor of a province; the age of Augustus was in these and other matters one of reform. Mr. Fowler finds the clue to many differences between modern and ancient business conditions in the problem of transportation; thus difficulty of transportation well-nigh necessitated municipal purchase of corn at Rome and other cities.

Interesting also is the treatment of the gradual infiltration of Greek philosophy into the Roman mind, and the compromise formed between the new doctrines and the old beliefs. The contrast between the skepticism of the Ciceronian period and the revival of faith under Augustus is well shown. It is acutely remarked, however, that, despite Virgil's great contribution to the religious

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reform of his day, Jupiter never recovered from the treatment he received in the "Æneid," where he appears as a power beneath the *fatum Romanum*. It might be added that if he partly recovered, Ovid finished him in the comedy of his "Metamorphoses."

In one respect Dr. Fowler differs markedly from his predecessor, Dill. While the latter's books include rather elaborate treatments of personalities, in fact read now and then like histories of Roman literature, Mr. Fowler makes his characters parts of his larger plot. Not that he fails to do justice to the important personages of the period. We find brief but vivid sketches of such men as Cælius, Sulpicius Rufus, Varro, and the inevitable Posidonius. Cicero calls for characterization under more than one aspect; in opposition to the harsh school of Mommsen, Mr. Fowler rightly finds the secret of his importance in his ideal of *humanitas*. His estimate of Lucretius is admirable; part of it may be quoted as a specimen of the book:

So far Lucretius may be called a religious poet, in that with profound conviction and passionate utterance he denounced the wickedness of his age, and, like the Hebrew prophets, called on mankind to put away their false gods and degrading superstitions, and learn the true secret of guidance in this life. It is only when we come to ask what that secret was that we feel that this extraordinary man knew far too little of ordinary human nature to be either a religious reformer or an effective prophet. . . . His secret . . . was only a philosophical creed, which he had learnt from Epicurus and Democritus. His profound belief in it is one of the most singular facts in literary history; no man ever put such poetic passion into a dogma, and no such imperious dogma was ever built upon a scientific theory of the universe. He seems to have combined two Italian types of character, which never have been united before or since, that of the ecclesiastic, earnest and dogmatic, seeing human nature from a doctrinal platform, not working and thinking with it; and secondly the poetic type, of which Dante is the noblest example, perfectly clear and definite in inward and outward vision, and illuminating all that it touches with an indescribable glow of pure poetic imagination.

Dr. Fowler in his preface pays tribute to the inspiration of Boissier's "Cicéron et ses amis," and his own work deserves a place on the same shelf. It is a popular book in the best sense of that term.

Valuation: Its Nature and Laws. By Wilbur Marshall Urban. New York: The Macmillan Co. (In the Library of Philosophy, edited by J. H. Muirhead.)

Professor Urban's "introduction to the general theory of value" shows us how a genetic psychology approaches the question which has halted economist, moralist, and art critic. These three, seeking the foundation of all worth in their respective fields, have lost trace of it in the obscure impulses and feelings of the human mind. Professor Urban believes they must call upon the official guide of this labyrinth for assistance. Values, he tells us, can be understood only after we know out of what experiences they have grown and in what others they are felt. This proposition, from which nobody would dissent, leads Professor Urban squarely into introspective analysis. His book describes, with excessive refinement, those elusive shades of feeling and subtle movings of judgment that flit across the mind as it is engaged in setting a value upon something. Clumsy technical language obscures the descriptions (the term "axiology" had to be invented for them!), and they are diffuse beyond mercy. Nevertheless, they reach some decisive results.

Particularly useful to students of psychology are the discussions of Lipps's "sympathetic participation" (Einfühlung) and the "presuppositions of judgment" (Annahmen), which the Austrian school has written books and books about. These vexed topics, though met here only on the oblique, receive fuller attention than at the hands of any other American writer who has come to our notice. They seem, however, to cast but faint light on the theory of value. In the end, Professor Urban returns, after all his wearying microscopical work, to Lotze's familiar doctrine that value is identical with reality and prior to both truth and existence. "Worth experience . . . corresponds to a larger world of reality than the limited regions of existence and truth." These latter predicates "have meaning only when they add to the intrinsic value or reality of an impression or idea." In short, although we must always assume that every value is ultimately intelligible, it is not so for our minds; for the very tools with which we appraise, the logical connections and the sufficient reasons, are themselves valuations. So we fall into a psychological circle which only a "Beatific Vision" can break, "a higher experience in which both contemplation and thought are transcended." That vision must always be the goal of metaphysics. Be Professor Urban's demonstrations what he will—and here we shall not undertake to inspect them—we fear the economist, moralist, and art critic will not feel enriched. For instead of illuminating the criteria by which men estimate market prices, sunset glow, or cowardice, the genetic psychologist simply reads off the symptoms of that state of mind in which such estimates are made, and then springs to their metaphysical implications. If his procedure is worth all its pain, at least its profits do not accrue thus far to others than psychologists.

Science.

Our Insect Friends and Enemies. By John B. Smith. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.

Dr. Smith is so well known in the world of scientific and practical entomology that his last book is sure to meet a cordial welcome. It is not only his last work, but one may confidently say that it is his best work. It retains the features of thoroughness and accuracy that mark his former publications, and give them such technical scientific and economical value. But the plan upon which the contents have been conceived and are arranged is such as to commend the work to the general reading public, as well as to those particularly interested in the natural life-history of insects, and their economical relations to mankind. The scheme of the book may be outlined briefly as follows: The relations of insects (1) to the animal kingdom; (2) to plants as benefactors; (3) to plants as destroyers; (4) to one another; (5) to the animals that feed on them; (6) to weather and diseases that affect them; (7) to other animals; (8) to man, as benefactors; (9) to man, as carriers of disease; (10) to the household; (11) to the farmer and fruit grower; with, finally, (12) a chapter on the "War on Insects." The last theme is of high practical interest and value to those whose unhappy experience compels them to defend their orchards, vineyards, gardens, and grounds from the hordes of insect enemies. A considerable part of Dr. Smith's facts have been personally observed in the course of his long career as an entomologist, and all are based upon the observations or records of scientific investigators. Almost necessarily there is some overlapping of the various sections. But this point has been well guarded, and one is not conscious of repetitions or mere padding.

One often comes across statements that cause hesitation, and start one to thinking, and even to questioning. For instance, what a field of reflection opens before this remark:

Some species of insects do such incredibly stupid things occasionally, that it would be a libel on instinct to charge it with such actions. And often *specimens of the same species* will do things so differently that individuality and ratiocination must be accepted as accounting for the difference. To be sure, it is not a very high grade of intelligence that is manifested, using our own attainments as a standard; but it is such a grade as brings out the difference between individuals and species, and enables one to do well what the other fails in, habitually.

That there is a wide difference between insect orders, genera, and even species in the seeming intelligence with

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which the various conditions of their life are met, will not be questioned by entomologists. But that like differences obtain between the *individuals of the same species*, as thus asserted by Dr. Smith, as in the case of man and higher animals, is something that gives one pause. Again, it doubtless goes against the widely popular opinion of the relations of birds to insects to read (p. 135) that, as against the common insect pests of the farm, the field, the orchard, and the garden, neither birds nor other vertebrate animals are of the least practical benefit, and that the farmer and fruit grower would be no worse off if every insectivorous bird and other animal were killed. Yet our author, nevertheless, is careful to encourage the belief that these vertebrates do constitute a useful and important check to many injurious insects that otherwise would be more abundant than they are. That theory, at least, breaks the arm of our dependence upon natural protectors against insect pests, and throws us more completely upon artificial defences, which is doubtless the safer way.

The injuries inflicted by insects upon man are fully exhibited in Dr. Smith's book, and everywhere he has an eye to the remedies therefor, as one would expect from his position as an economical entomologist. But he does the little creatures justice in showing their immense benefits to our race in fertilizing flowers, fruits, shrubs, and trees, many of which without such agency would not reproduce their kind; in disposing of waste and decaying matter, as universal scavengers; and in shifting the soil of the earth, and adding to its richness by reducing dead wood to powder and giving it back to the soil in available shape for use. It perhaps strikes the ordinary reader as unreasonable to believe that such little creatures should produce such great results. But if one considers that the number of known species of insects is over 200,000, and that there are probably as many more yet undescribed; and that most of these species continually produce countless hordes of individuals, their power for good or for evil will seem far from insignificant.

The publisher's work merits commendation. There are 121 cuts, most of which have several figures, making several hundred in all. A good many of these will be recognized by those who are familiar with Dr. Smith's "Economic Entomology," and with the publications of the Agricultural Department. But they are all good and appropriate.

"Sahara Soudanais" is the title of the second volume of the "Missions au Sahara," just published by Librairie Armand Colin. It treats of the region between the Niger and Lake Tchad, the life of the people and its relation to their physical conditions, the climate, plants, and animals and their dispersion, and the Saharaian commerce and its future. The observations show that, contrary to the general belief that the desert is extending into the Sudan, the great development of the vegetation on the fossil dunes is bringing into fertility regions recently absolutely desert.

D. Appleton & Co. announce for publication in the near future, "Aerial Navigation," by A. F. Zahm; "Periodic Law," by A. E. Garrett; "A History of Birds," by H. O. Forbes; "The Modern Science of Language," by H. C. Wyld; "Psychology and the Teachers," by Hugo Münsterberg; "Bird Hunting Through Wild Europe," by R. B. Lodge.

Germany has a new Academy of Sciences, the first one not founded by a government, but by private munificence. It has its headquarters in Heidelberg, and its establishment was made possible by a bequest of one million marks from Heinrich Lanz, the late manufacturer of Mannheim. The academy will consist of two classes, one devoted to research in the department of mathematics and natural sciences, and the other to philosophy and history.

A unique and very imperfectly explored corner of our country is described by Mr. W. C. Mendenhall, of the Geological Survey, in the *National Geographic Magazine* for August. It is the Colorado Desert in Southern California, and his graphic account, together with the remarkable photographic illustrations, give one a vivid impression of what was originally one of the most desolate spots on the globe, a veritable furnace in midsummer, but now destined through the agency of man to become an agricultural region in which products incapable of production elsewhere in the United States can be successfully grown. Among its peculiar features are mud volcanoes and gorges 200 feet deep and yet scarcely wide enough at the bottom for a man to pass. Mr. H. M. Smith, deputy commissioner of fisheries, contributes an instructive article on the sea herring—the world's most valuable fish—in which he gives the methods of fishing and the amount of the annual catch in the various countries, the industries it supports, and the part it has played in history. "Its spawning and feeding grounds have determined the location of cities," and it was a prime factor in the overthrow of Charles I, while the famous "Battle of the Herrings," fought at Orleans, immediately preceded the raising of the siege, her first chosen task, by Joan of Arc. The annual product is about two and a half billion pounds, valued at $60,000,000.

"Life's Day, Guide-Posts and Danger-Signals in Health" (Frederick A. Stokes Co.) is the outcome of a course of lectures delivered by Dr. W. S. Bainbridge at Chautauqua. He seeks to give general advice on the conduct of life according to periods designated as "Dawn," "Morning," "Midday," and "Twilight," some of which are rather vague in their limits. "Dawn" is perhaps the best chapter in the book, and treats of infancy rather than the strictly auroral or prenatal period of existence, which is partially and rather superficially provided for in an introductory section on heredity and environment. The advice is generally good and the book ought to help many of the class for which it was written.

From Vienna the death is announced, in his fifty-second year, of Alfons Edler von Rosthorn, professor of gynæcology in the university of that place. He wrote many treatises and articles on his specialty.

From Copenhagen comes the report of the death of Emile Christian Hansen, the botanist, in his sixty-seventh year. He had worked particularly in the field of fermentations, and one of his publications was on the "Morphology of Alcoholic Ferments."

Drama and Music.

To Mr. John S. Farmer, the general editor, and to T. C. & E. C. Jack, the publishers, we are indebted to two new issues of the superb Tudor Facsimile Texts, bringing the total number of volumes now in the hands of subscribers up to forty-nine. Of the new issues one, of four volumes, completes the Enterludes of John Heywood, giving us "A Play of Love" from the impression of 1533-4; "John John the Husband, Tyb his Wife, and Sir John the Priest," from the 1533 edition; "The Play of the Weather," 1533; and "The Pardoner and the Frere, the curate and neybour Pratte," 1533. All these are photographed from the originals in the Pepysian Library at Magdalene College, Cambridge, and in the first of them is reproduced the portrait of Pepys pasted in the book no doubt by the genial owner himself. The other issue is of three volumes diverse in character. One gives "The Story of King Darius," from a copy of Colwell's edition of 1565, at Magdalene College. Another edition of this play, Hugh Jackson's of 1577, has already been reproduced in this series. The second volume contains "The World and the Child, otherwise Mundus & Infans," from a copy at Trinity College, Dublin, of Wynkyn de Worde's edition of 1522, the play itself probably dating from 1500-6. This is the first time it has been reproduced in facsimile, and indeed properly reproduced at all, for neither Hazlitt's nor the present editor's earlier reprint was accurate. The third volume contains "A Contract of Marriage between Wit and Wisdom," from the manuscript copy dating about 1579. The original is in the British Museum, and has never before been printed. As usual, all these reproductions have been collated with the originals, and assurance is given that in very few minute points is anything lost in the process, whereas in many points the photograph is actually the clearer of the two. As we have remarked before, the value of this series is enormously increased by its continuance. A single volume would be merely a curiosity; but as a considerable part of these early plays is brought out, opportunity is given to scholars all over the world to study the beginnings of the drama with the same certainty, so far as the series carries them, and with more convenience than in the great libraries of England.

Briefwechsel zwischen Franz Liszt und Carl Alexander Grossherzog von Sachsen. Herausgegeben von La Mara. Leipzig: Breitkopf & Härtel.

In 1841, Liszt appeared for the first

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time at Weimar; he was thirty years old and aroused unbounded enthusiasm by his playing, both in public and at court. The following year, he was invited to participate in some aristocratic marriage festivities in the same town, and, on this occasion, the leaves were turned for him by no less exalted a personage than the Grandduchess Maria Paulowna, sister of the Czar Nicholas I, and mother of Augusta, who subsequently became the Empress of Germany. It was nothing new for the petted pianist to be thus adored and honored, but this time the homage assumed the form of a request, the consequences of which affected the history of music seriously. Liszt was asked to accept the title of Grandducal Kappellmeister and to devote three months of his time every year to musical activity at Weimar; and he consented. Thus it came about that this city became for the musical world what it had been for the literary world in the days of Goethe, thanks partly to Liszt, partly to Carl Alexander, who became Grand Duke in 1853, and whose great ambition was to make Weimar once more the centre of German intellectual life. His ideals were liberal and progressive, and he loved to gather about him men like Häckel, Kuno Fischer, Georg Ebers, Hermann Grimm, Bodenstedt, Gustav Freytag, with foreigners of the same rank, beside all the great musicians of the time, who were attracted by Liszt.

Carl Alexander soon discovered that the greatness of Liszt as a musician was owing largely to his magnetic personality and to an intellect which had keen insight into many other things than his chosen art. He begged Liszt to correspond with him when away from Weimar: "Compensate by your letters for the privation your absence inflicts on me"; and when Liszt complies, he writes: "I cannot tell you how delighted I am to find you in your letters the same man I have learned to know and to love in conversation." Thus began a correspondence which lasted from 1845 to 1886, resulting in 203 letters, most of which are given to the world for the first time in this volume. They are printed as written, in French, but the footnotes and the introduction, by the indefatigable La Mara (Marie Lipsius), are in German.

In the earliest of these letters, we catch glimpses of Liszt on his triumphal tours. In the first of them, dated at Cadiz, he dwells on the difficulties encountered in a country which, up to that time, no pianist of high rank had ventured to visit. Already, however, he is beginning to think of other spheres of activity than the keyboard. In 1846, he refers to the rumors that he was to succeed Donizetti as conductor of the Imperial Opera in Vienna, and protests against the version that he had applied for that position: "All Vienna knows perfectly well that I do not apply for anything that could look like a position, but that quite naturally and simply Liszt must be a candidate spoken of in Austria provided that he has shown for such a post more ability and talent than others." In the same letter, he declares that thenceforth touring as a pianist is to be a subordinate part of his career: "Above all other things, my aim at present is to *conquer the theatre for my ideals*, just as I have during these last six years conquered with my personality as an artist." Weimar soon offered opportunities for this conquest of the theatre; under his direction, the opera in that city became a sort of preliminary Bayreuth; and more than Bayreuth from one point of view, for the operas of other struggling composers besides Wagner were there presented for the first time. Indeed, in 1859, he declared that as Wagner's operas had now taken their place in the regular repertory of the theatres they no longer needed his aid.

He had enemies who spoke sneeringly of the new works he was constantly staging as "experiments." The public did not always come to his rescue, notably in the case of Cornelius's "Barber of Bagdad," which was a complete failure. This fiasco, combined with the insufficiency of the means placed at his disposal in some cases, and the impediments to his marriage with the Princess Wittgenstein, induced him to give up his position at Weimar, without, however, causing a break in his friendship with Carl Alexander. Nine years later, when Liszt again lived at Weimar, the Grand Duke sent him one day a note beginning:

> To the devil with women, especially those that are beautiful in your eyes and amiable. They take you away from me.

In several of these letters Liszt talks freely about the heart wounds caused by the delay in the divorce proceedings of the Princess Wittgenstein, and the various difficulties placed in the way of his marriage to her after her husband's death. He finally accepted the inevitable and went to Rome in order to reform church music. But the Romans preferred their music as it was, and Liszt continued, as he had done all his life, to compose chiefly for his own satisfaction. Regarding his critics he writes to the Grand Duke:

> The unfavorable comments on my compositions would give me encouragement in case I needed any, for one does not, even in case of partisanship, attack unimportant works with such acrimonious violence.

Unfortunately, he does not often accede to his correspondent's request "parlez moi de vos traveaux." A quarter of a century after the Grand Duke had made this request he had to write: "I resign myself to seeing you always occupied more with others than with yourself, your character being made that way." Liszt has a good deal to say about Wagner and about his projects for the "Fondation-Goethe à Weimar," which was to assist unknown artists, as also about Saint-Saëns, and other composers. Of Rubinstein he gives this vivid sketch (1869):

> He needs at least two years of concert tours to amass a capital of two or three hundred thousand francs, which he deems requisite for his artistic independence. His successes as pianist no longer have any importance for him except in so far as they increase his receipts; apart from that he would snap his fingers at them, for his master passion is elsewhere. It is the ambition, ardent, obstinate, proud, almost exclusive, of attaining the rank of a great composer. He has the gifts for it, the *allure*, the means, the temperament, but perhaps also a little too much conscious purpose and haste. His fiery temperament urges him on to excessive productivity; he suffers from the incontinence of his musical genius, which would fain encompass Meyerbeer and Mendelssohn, even adding Beethoven, plus Rubinstein himself.

"Music, Its Laws and Evolution," by Jules Combarieu, is listed for publication by D. Appleton & Co.

"Old Irish Folk-Music and Songs" is the title of a collection of 842 Irish airs and songs not printed heretofore. They are edited, with annotations, for the Royal Society of Antiquaries of Ireland by W. P. Joyce, and published by Longmans, Green & Co.

Dr. Hugo Riemann, the leading musical historian and theorist of our time—in fact, of all time—celebrated his sixtieth birthday on July 18. To musicians in general he is best known as the author of the admirable "Musik-Lexicon," of which seven editions have already appeared, and which is unique among encyclopædias, inasmuch as every article in its 1,500 pages bears the stamp of his individual judgment, style, and original research. Dr. Riemann is the reverse of a compiler; he accepts nothing on faith, but labors indefatigably to trace facts to their sources; and these sources, especially in the history of mediæval music, are often very obscure, requiring rare detective ingenuity to discover them. With the industrious habits of a German professor he unites the lucid, incisive style of a brilliant man of letters. He has thrown new light on every branch of musical theory (of which he has also written a history); has composed a considerable amount of chamber music, songs, and piano pieces; has written unsurpassed treatises on harmony, fugue, and counterpoint; has devised a system of phrasing which has aided thousands in their efforts to interpret music eloquently as well as correctly; has coined as a correlative of "dynamic," the useful new word, "agogic," relating to those slight modifications of pace which are usually stupidly called tempo rubato; in short, there is hardly an aspect of music which has not been touched and illuminated by his authority. On the younger generation of musicians he has exerted an incalculable, salutary influence, partly through his gift of elucidating obscure problems, partly

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by his liberal, unbiassed views, as set forth particularly in his history of music since Beethoven, in which the composers are viewed in a new perspective, and for the first time deserved prominence is given to Schubert, Chopin, Wagner, and Liszt.

The death is reported, in his sixty-third year, of Sigismund Noskowski, director of the Music School of Warsaw. He was the inventor of a system of notation for the blind.

Art.

Greek Buildings Represented by Fragments in the British Museum. By W. R. Lethaby. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $4.20 net.

From this title the reader is led to expect either a full account of the Greek buildings of which the British Museum owns fragments, with a clear exposition of our present knowledge, or a series of articles setting forth original theories and fresh information regarding these monuments. A book of the first kind might have been an invaluable companion to the classical student in London; one of the latter would have deserved the attention of all archæologists as a discussion of questions, the importance of which makes every new contribution of value. Mr. Lethaby's book satisfies neither of these expectations. In fact, it is difficult to see why the book was written, or rather published, at least in this form. There is no full treatment of any one of the buildings discussed. The information is presented more or less at random without any definite plan of selection. In some cases the author starts systematically, giving the date, plan, and construction of the building; in others he neglects to give any introductory notice whatever, beginning immediately on the discussion of some special point. Well-known facts are advanced, as if for the first time; references to other publications are not frequent, and there is a general preference for out-of-date books. Together with this old material, some new theories are set forth, but these are not properly digested and little attempt is made to prove them in a scientific manner. The whole volume makes the impression of being in the form of rough notes on points that happen to have interested the writer, intended to be worked out properly later. If Mr. Lethaby had separated his original suggestions—such as his theories about Cecrops in the Western pediment of the Parthenon, the column of the chryselephantine Athena of Pheidias, the temple of Rhamnus, the plan of the Mausoleum—from the rest of his material, had worked them out carefully and published them in the form of an article in an archæological or architectural journal, his contribution to archæology might have been of more value.

As is natural in a book of this sort, misstatements are frequent, and the serious student must be warned against them. The following are only a few. On page 155 Mr. Lethaby says: "This kind of doorway [with a sunk band for a bronze-covered frame] may be taken as a general rule to show that a building is earlier than the Erechtheum," forgetting, apparently for the moment, that the Erechtheum itself had one of these very doors on the east side! On p. 164 the statement occurs that "we know from the building inscription that the east door [of the Erechtheum] had consoles." As a matter of fact, the building inscription gives us no such information. It merely says that a half-worked console, destined for the east wall, was on the ground near by. Now, since the windows on the east side had four applied consoles, the console mentioned may well have been one of these (see G. P. Stevens's article in the *American Journal of Archæology*, 1906). Special attention must be drawn to a curious slip on p. 202. Figure 210 on that page shows the well-known porphyry shaft, probably a portion of a lamp decorated with a leaf pattern which was found by Dr. Arthur Evans at Knossos, and is now in the Candia Museum, Crete. The British Museum owns a cast of this shaft; it used there to be placed, with other Cretan reproductions, in the Early Vase Room in a case containing Mycenæan finds from Enkomi, Cyprus. Mr. Lethaby, evidently little familiar with the Cretan material, has taken it for granted that this shaft also came from Cyprus, and publishes it as such here. These reproductions have now been placed with other Cretan material, so that such mistakes will be impossible in the future. Characteristic of Mr. Lethaby's method of disposing of archæological problems is his remark a little further down (p. 203) on the fresco of a shrine from Knossos, where he summarily refers to the famous "sacred horns" found in such numbers in Crete as "altars."

"Notes on the Science of Picture Making," by C. J. Holmes, and "Fresco Painting, Its Art and Technique, with Reference to the Buono and Spirit Fresco Methods," by James Ward, are among the publications to be issued by D. Appleton & Co.

The Liverpool committee for research in Wales and the Marches (founded 1907) have issued their first annual report. Though eager to put the spade in the ground, they are persuaded that discretion is the better part of valor, and their work for 1908 has been limited to the conduct of a preliminary survey of a few districts, which have not yet been explored by any local society, and to tentative excavations on sites which seem likely to deserve more thorough examination in the future. Professor Haverfield and Professor Bosanquet have devoted such time as they could spare to investigating the smaller Roman forts, of which twenty or more are known in Wales and the Marches. Mr. George Clinch has examined the region round Cader Idris bounded by the rivers Maroddach and Dovey, and Mr. Hugh S. Kingsford has done some good surface work along the coast of Carnarvonshire and in Anglesey. The two last have furnished illustrated descriptions of their work. Such excavation as has been carried on has been mainly confined to the graveyard at Caerleon, Monmouth, and has been supervised by Mr. Evelyn G. White and the Monmouthshire and Caerleon Antiquarian Association.

In that eternal struggle between the inner vision and the external fact which is the life of the artist there are many failures, who interest nobody. There are, also, three classes of men who succeed, partially or wholly. They are the men of little or no imagination, men of eye and hand, of whom the consummate type is Frans Hals; men of that type to which Laurence Housman has recently confessed that he belongs—artists who are put out by nature and can body forth their vision only by neglect of everything else—of whom Blake is the highest example; and the great masters, whose imagination is true enough and strong enough to be helped rather than hurt by the contact with nature, and who are able definitely to realize their ideal. It is the artist of the second class that is apt to be the favorite of the literary critic, and is labelled specifically "an imaginative artist" because he is so evidently nothing else. One of the weaker brothers of this sort was Simeon Solomon, a Burne-Jones without the pictorial ability, to whom Mrs. Julia Ellsworth Ford devotes a monograph published by Frederic Fairchild Sherman. The illustrations are, for the most part, reproductions of crayon drawings of heads, single or in groups, and there is nothing of that earlier work which we are assured was the artist's best. What we get is mildly interesting but feeble, possessing a certain intensity of expression, but nothing more.

Finance.

A FALL IN STOCK EXCHANGE PRICES.

A sudden break on the Stock Exchange, running so far, in the more active stocks, as 6½ points in shares of the Reading Railway, 7 in New York Central, 9 in Southern Pacific, and 13 in Union Pacific—all this within little more than a week—sets the wits of the financial community at work. It is characteristic of the Wall Street wing of that community that it should ignore the obvious explanation. Not to mention other speculative stocks, Reading had previously advanced 48 points from last spring's price, New York Central 27, Southern Pacific 24, and Union Pacific 46. This was a reasonably rapid enhancement of values, even with an improving industrial situation to "discount." When, furthermore, conservative observers had been warning the public that prices had risen unreason-

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ably high, that they were kept up by borrowed money which must largely be surrendered in the autumn, that numerous predictions on which the rise was based had not been fulfilled, and that even a most brilliant future had been "overdiscounted," a fall in prices such as has been described was scarcely illogical. Perhaps, after all, the factor of "Harriman's health," which Wall Street prefers to assign as the single cause, did not play the part that Wall Street imagines.

The market's action suggests some other considerations. It may be safely said that very rarely has a sudden fall in values created so much uneasiness in Wall Street, and so little anywhere else. There are occasions when merchants and manufacturers shake their heads apprehensively when they see the row of large figures with the minus signs in the stock table of their evening paper; but no one encountered that sort of doubt and mistrust on this occasion. Nor, on the other hand, were the 10 and 12-point declines in active speculative stocks greeted by the wail of distress, from Wall Street's "outside public," which followed the similar declines of May, 1901, and December, 1904. Demands for summary vengeance on the evil men who had lured the virtuous outsider into speculations which went wrong, and grave moralizing on the abuses of Wall Street itself, made up much of the conversation, and much of the newspaper editorials, of the week or so following those episodes. No one heard them during the recent break in prices.

The natural inference would be, that the "outside public" was not caught on this occasion, and the inference happens to square with certain indications visible during the progress of the speculation itself. There can be no great doubt that the authors and managers of the extravagant "boom" in prices, this past summer, reckoned with confidence on a runaway market under the outside public's auspices, when the tariff bill should become a law. It is an old story now, to what extent all predictions of the future, earlier in the year, were based on and timed to that event. Shall we be prosperous? We certainly shall—as soon as the tariff bill is passed. Will stocks go up? There will be a memorable advance—when Congress is through with the debate. It is not in the least improbable that the authors of these curious prophecies, beginning with an effort to convince the general public, ended by convincing themselves. And it must be said that even logic and psychology went to confirm the inference that a financial public which went crazy over the election of last November ought to have been inspired to equal madness by the fulfilling of the condition precedent set by Wall Street authorities on the present occasion.

But the public is a curious being. Its action last November took High Finance completely by surprise. High Finance thereupon revised its expectations for the next occasion of the sort; but the fickle public contributed another surprise by doing exactly the opposite of what it did last autumn. This behavior, which was freely commented on when the tariff debate had ended, perhaps explains why, four or five weeks after the tariff bill's enactment, outsiders have been watching the heavy break in stocks as calmly as they might watch a melodrama, while the signs of discomfort and uneasiness appear in the Wall Street quarters which by the programme were to have been by this time in so very different a position.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

American Playgrounds. Edited by E. B. Mero. Second edition. Boston: The Dale Assn. $2.

Baldwin, C. S. Writing and Speaking. Longmans. $1.20.

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Becker, W. C. Der Nietzschekultus. Milwaukee, Wis.: Freidenker Pub. Co. 75 cents.

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Bowen, M. The Leopard and the Lily. Doubleday, Page.

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Caine, H. The White Prophet. Appleton. $1.50.

Clark, I. We Four and Two More. Crowell. $1.25.

Collodi, C. Pinocchio: the Adventures of a Little Wooden Boy. Translated by J. Walker. Crowell. $1.

Cory, C. B. The Birds of Illinois and Wisconsin. Zoölogical Series. Vol. IX. Field Museum of Natural History, Chicago.

Dickinson, H. N. Sir Guy and Lady Rannard: Duffield. $1.50.

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Francis, A. Americans: An Impression. Appleton.

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Hill, H. A Traitor's Wooing. J. E. Kearney. $1.50.

Hunting, H. G. The Silver Canoe. Chicago: McClurg & Co. $1.25.

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Kayser, C. F., and Monteser, F. Foundations of German. American Book Co. 80 cents.

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